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ABSTRACT

Given in this publication are 15 working papers which were prepared to assist conference participants in discussion of areas of educational neglect. These papers include reports of: (1) on-site studies conducted during the 2 months immediately preceding the conference and (2) national statistics and information regarding an area of neglect. The reports are not intended to be complete on the subject they cover, but to be representative of some of the problems. Varying in length, format, and style, the on-site reports reflect the variety of approaches which may be taken on a local or State level. Areas covered are: (1) violence in the public schools; (2) bilingual education; (3) education of women, American Indians, migrant children, children on military bases, handicapped children, and urban children; (4) juveniles in detention facilities; (5) early childhood education; (6) suburban education; (7) adult basic education; and (8) education in geographically isolated areas. (Author/NQ)

Project 1975:

Educational Neglect

On-Site and Research Reports

Working Papers for Participants Conference on Educational Neglect February 15-18, 1975

National Education Association
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	i
Danger—School Ahead: Violence in the Public Schools	1
The Price of Learning English: Acculturation or Cultural Annihilation?	13
Bilingual Education (*Research Background Paper*)	21
Kanawha County, West Virginia: A Textbook Study in Cultural Conflict (*incorporated by reference*)	25
Educational Neglect of Women: Report of Grand Rapids Hearings	27
Neglect in the Education of American Indians	37
Neglect in the Education of Migrant Children	81
Out of Sight, Out of Mind: Juveniles in Detention Facilities	89
Neglect in the Education of Children on Military Bases	103
Neglect in the Education of Handicapped Children	107
Early Childhood Education	111
Suburban Education	115
Education in Geographically Isolated Areas	119
Adult Basic Education	125
Neglect in the Education of Urban Children	129

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INTRODUCTION

These reports have been prepared to assist conference participants in discussions of areas of educational neglect.

Some reports include the results of on-site studies conducted during the two months immediately preceding the conference. Others present national statistics and information regarding an area of neglect. None of the reports is intended to be complete on the subject it covers. The reports are meant to be representative of some of the problems. It is expected that the conference participants will add to these reports and assist in building a more complete picture of the extent of educational neglect.

The reports vary in length, format and style. On-site reports reflect the variety of approaches which may be taken on a local or state level. Where there was no on-site, the report presents national statistics.

The reports reflect the views and information found by local and state study groups, researchers, and others who worked to assemble them. They do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Education Association or its affiliates. Any official consideration by NEA policy-making bodies will occur only after the conference when a full conference report is available.

It is hoped that participants will review all of the reports and use whatever is helpful.

James A. Harris
President
National Education Association

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DANGER—SCHOOL AHEAD: VIOLENCE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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Introduction

Educational neglect is shown in many ways. Underlying all of them is a massive failure to concentrate on the central purpose of the schools—helping students to learn. When students recognize this root of neglect, violence is one result.

The NEA Project Neglect team studying violence in the schools was invited to Compton, California. Compton's schools are not the most violent in the nation, nor are California's. But Compton was a rewarding place to visit because its problems, growing out of unplanned change, unfamiliar challenges, and lack of communication, are common to cities throughout the country that are struggling to provide decent schools. Too often, such problems make people forget the students who are in the school now.

Compton was rewarding, too, because the team met some of those students, and some of the people who have not forgotten them. Parents, school staff members, and community leaders—as well as students—all gave the team some parts of answers to the problems of educational neglect.

"We Just Survive."

Statistics on violence in the schools show that in the past four years, assaults increased 58 percent; sex offenses, 62 percent; drug-related crimes, 81 percent; and robbery, 117 percent. The statistics are only estimates. But even if they were accurate, they still couldn't express the effects of violence. When violence becomes a known and accepted part of the school experience, everybody in the school community is a victim. Not only the people who suffer violence, but everyone who witnesses it, everyone who is aware of it, loses the confidence to walk the halls without caution. Preoccupation with personal physical safety drains away some of the alertness and energy that should go into learning and teaching. The young men and women who extort, who beat, who kill, have been damaged, too—they have become callous to some kinds of pain.

California's schools are only the ninth most violent in the nation. Yet in California during every month of 1973, there were about 28 assaults on school professional personnel, 9 on peace officers—and 74 on students. Every month, students were caught with guns, knives, or bombs 120 times; vandalism or theft occurred 1,379 times. In Compton, just outside Los Angeles, a student was shot to death in 1974. Most recently, a student was killed in a Los Angeles high school.

Visit an English class in Compton High School. It may be like classes in your school—if so, you know it. Or maybe there are classes like this somewhere else in your district, and you don't know it. . . .You pass the guard at the school door with a nod and a smile and no questions asked, because your appearance is respectable. A few of the students in the big, echoing corridor stare openly at you; most, talking and hurrying, ignore you. Echoes clatter against the dun, gleaming walls of the staircase that leads to the basement. Near the bottom lounge three young men. They seem exceptionally large and they stare at you; they aren't hurrying, they have nowhere to go. You don't quicken your pace, but you're glad to get inside the classroom with the teacher and the students. The teacher persuades the students to be quiet enough so he can tell them: Here's someone who wants to ask about violence in the schools. But the classroom wall is thin and it doesn't reach the high basement ceiling—you still hear the laughing and shouting in the corridor.

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What are the most common kinds of violence in the Compton schools? A dreadful question, but it must be answered. And the answer isn't unexpected: extortion and assault. Almost a third of the students have been victims of assault; more than two-thirds have been witnesses. Elementary school pupils have been especially subject to extortion.

It isn't unusual to find a student carrying a weapon, concealed or unconcealed. Student lockers have been permanently wired shut so bombs and guns can't be kept there. In the district's most affluent high school, some parents are said to provide their children with guns for self-defense. They carry them in their attache cases. That's the only school where "hard" drugs are a real problem, but wine and marijuana are used throughout the district.

It's the combination of weapons and extortion that caused the killing at Compton High. A regular extortion victim was informed that he'd have to pay more in the future. When the day came and the collector approached, the victim, at the end of his resources, in desperation pulled out a gun and shot him.

The act became a statistic of school violence. People whose schools are free of killing can shake their heads at it. Criminologists can try to classify it: manslaughter? premeditated murder? self-defense? temporary insanity? All of these—or none? Responsible members of the school community will instead examine its meaning for students in school now.

Much of the violence in the Compton schools is attributed to organized groups, often called "gangs." Some of the groups are Afro-American, some are Chicano—fighting is mostly within, not between the two groups. There aren't any white "gangs," probably because only 1 percent of Compton's student population is white (about 85 percent are Afro-American, 14 percent, Chicano).

The bulk of the students refer to their peers who commit violent acts as "them." "They just act crazy." "They come to school sometimes, but they don't go to class." How do most students survive? By acting confident, unafraid—or inconspicuous. By being quick-witted and resourceful. The choice of strategy depends on individual personality and on alignment in the school hierarchy. A member of the intellectual elite acts differently from an ordinary student, who may just try to be invisible.

A representative of one organized group sees the situation in practical, not sociological terms:

> "If I ask you to give me a dollar, you can either give me the dollar or tell me where you're coming from. If you're not afraid of me, and tell me where you're coming from—suppose you need that dollar for something—you might not have to give it to me."

Teachers see little point in reporting violence. While an incident is taking place, a teacher dare not leave the class alone long enough to go for help—and often, in the Compton schools, the intercom doesn't work.

Teachers and students both say that a student who is reported to the administration or even picked up by the police is likely to return next day as a hero. At one point, students who were found outside school during school hours were taken to jail. A young person could decide every morning whether to go to school or to jail. Students thus had the chance to learn their way around the jail without having to serve a long sentence. In any event, the "correctional" institutions, local or state, hardly ever correct. The situation young people face on the outside doesn't improve, either. Those students who serve time once are likely to do it again and again.

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"The whites ran away. When it got to be too much for them, they turned it over to us. And we're learning just as fast as we can."

Let's look at the city of Compton. Many of its handsome, roomy, two-story houses are boarded up. Some of the owners couldn't pay their taxes; others have just closed up their houses and gone to live somewhere else. Federal agencies own 5 percent of Compton's housing. Big corporations have moved in, attracted by a low tax rate. Compton needs jobs—the overall unemployment rate is 10 percent. For young people, it's far higher. And jobs are very important to them, both for money and for self-respect. But the corporations haven't brought many jobs, because what they're building is warehouses.

Compton would be a fine place for people from Los Angeles to live in high-rise apartments—it's close, and there's a freeway. But the people who live in Compton now like their one-family houses, their yards and wide streets. They don't intend to be cleared away to make room for apartment dwellers from the city. Compton's city government points to signs of progress—last year the major crime rates fell between 12 and 22 percent. Federal resources are being sought out. And Compton has survived a lot already.

In 1965, around the time of the rebellion in Watts, across the Los Angeles city line, Compton's population was 80 percent white. The "first wave" of Afro-American citizens had arrived in the 50's, bought houses, settled down. Watts and other events of the middle 60's brought the pressure of national issues to bear on Compton. White citizens looked across the boundary at Watts, not with compassion, but with a shudder. People who lived in Watts needed more room; many of those who could, moved over into Compton. Within two years, Compton's population was mostly Afro-American. By 1974, it was mostly young as well—the median age was 19.

More of Compton's citizens were school-age, and they were of a new kind. The schools weren't prepared to teach students from Watts. Change came, but the teachers and administrators didn't change. It was 1968 before the first Afro-American high school principal was appointed.

Before they could adjust fully, the schools were further disoriented by the consolidation in 1969 of four systems to form the Compton Unified School District. Unification brought more money, temporarily, as the four budgets were combined and old, long-standing bills were paid. But the affluence didn't last long. The new district never got beyond the "provisional" organizational structure it started out with, but state support for that structure ended in 1971. Some people in Compton think that structure is expensive and full of redundancies—no administrative positions were cut.

Many readers will recognize these problems—students and school hierarchies thrown hastily together, without the right kind of planning and preparation, confused, hostile. Each is tempted to blame what is alien to him or her, or to blame the process—to say consolidation (or integration, or redistricting) is just unworkable. In fact, the process hasn't been given a fair trial.

Finally, since 1972 some of the highest offices of both the city and the school district have been filled by new people. The city has a new mayor and three new school board members. The school system is led by an acting superintendent. All these people are learning their jobs rapidly—but they haven't yet learned to pool information, ideas, and objectives.

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"We'd like to talk to the (school board, city government, teachers, students, parents, juvenile authorities)—but we don't."

Compton shares a major problem of many school districts in the United States. Different groups of people may want the same things to happen, may be working to accomplish the same things—but each group is working in isolation. For example, the Parks and Recreation Department may want to set up an after-school program. They'll do it on their own, without discussing it with the schools the kids will be coming from. Or the city may have the money for a vocational program—to train the graduates and the dropouts the schools hadn't the facilities to train. Maybe the police will sponsor a course in juvenile law—but students will have to go outside the schools to get it. In Compton, a halfway house for young people released from detention is funded directly by the state. The city government and the schools have nothing to do with it—in fact, they're said to be hindering it.

The teachers and the school administration both want good education, but the teachers are full of mistrust. Why is the central administration so big? Why are there so many vice-principals? What are their duties? How are they selected? They see plainly that the more professional staff leave the classroom, the more students are left for them to teach. As for students—"It's disgusting," said one teacher when a colleague ate lunch with her students. As far as the students can see, with very few exceptions "none of the adults cares anything about what we do or what happens to us. We're only killing ourselves. They only get upset when we burn something down." "They're just using us"—to earn a living, gain power, achieve prestige. A parent was a little more optimistic—"It's about 50-50. About half of us care." Would those who care work together to help all students? One mother, with a family of boys anyone could be proud of, responded this way: "Let's say I'm with you thick and thin. When the going gets thick, I thin out. I'm going to think of my children first." It's hard enough to raise one family with confidence and self-respect.

"I have just 6 months until I graduate. Then I'll have to support myself somehow. I could live off my parents, but that's not right. But how can I get a job?"

The person who said this is probably a member of one of those organized groups called "gangs." He and his colleagues are asking for three kinds of things.

First, they're asking for usable vocational education in the schools:

> "[Like many other Compton students,] I used to go to school in LA. They started to teach us computers. Then we moved here, and there was no class, no equipment, nothing. I wanted to know about computers so I could get a job. We asked for a course, but they turned us off."

Compton doesn't have an adequate work-study program. "All of the job applications ask about experience," one young woman pointed out. "But how can we get experience if we can't get a job without it?" A young man wondered, "What do you say when they ask if you've ever been arrested? If you say yes, you don't get the job, but if you say no, they fire you for lying."

The only work experience available to many Compton students is in extortion. They can learn about that occupation any week on the evening news, in stories about the police, governments at all levels, politicians, major corporations. It's not respectable, but it brings a good living. It's power politics, old-fashioned but effective and well-publicized. It doesn't require training, experience, references, or capital. No wonder some of the students who have seen few benefits from respectability give it a try.

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The second thing the students want is education they can apply, in an environment where they can learn. Many students spoke of the need for consistent, fair discipline. After all, some of the students are running disciplined organizations themselves—why can't the school administration do as much? Some of these students said they could get the violence out of the schools, but they don't believe the schools offer anything to replace the violence. They don't see how the curriculum relates to their lives. Things that happened long ago and far away—no one explains how they can help a person live now in Southern California. Too often, teachers "expose" students to "material" as if they were so many pieces of film—except that film gets "developed" after it's exposed. What relation does a leader of an organized group in Compton have to Beowulf fighting the monster in Anglo-Saxon England? "They don't ask on a job application, 'Who was Beowulf?' " The school has a responsibility to help students find the relationship—or to teach something more obviously "relevant."

The students are asking, finally, for something to do after school, in the evenings, on weekends. "There used to be a little gym where we could go and lift weights," said one, "but they closed it."

"We have to meet our friends in school," another pointed out. "There isn't anywhere else"—but it doesn't leave much time for going to class. Extracurricular activities? The teachers won't hold them after school, and the students won't come to them before school. Anyway, most of the students who once joined clubs have moved away, without recruiting anyone to take their place. Six tickets to Compton High's football games were sold last fall. "Who's going to go to a game when there's no band?" Who's going to take band when they have to take turns with the instruments? The students themselves had plenty of ideas. "The city has all those boarded up houses. Why can't we have one of them where we could give dances?" In fact, several of the students showed a strong desire to try their hand at business. When they got a Project Neglect team member alone, they asked very practical questions about grants, proposals, management—how to get things done.

"The schools are the battleground where society fights its battles."

From its observations in Compton, the Project Neglect team drew several conclusions that may help other communities concerned about violence in their schools. Violence in the schools isn't an isolated and bewildering phenomenon. Nor is it just "something in the air," a contagious societal disease which students can catch like anyone else. The schools need not reflect *every* aspect of society. Attacking educational neglect, with determination to teach and determination to learn, has a chance of making the violence of our society irrelevant to the schools. Violence in the schools has specific causes, which specific groups of people can remove, each with their own kind of resources.

Good communication between the groups increases the effect of their efforts; they need to make sure they're all working towards the same goal, and to avoid duplication of effort. But lack of communication is no excuse for inaction.

Parents and Their Institutions

People of school age need attention—the right kind of attention—from adults. They need people who respect them enough to set reasonable standards for their behavior. They need people who care enough about them to take the time to see that they observe these standards. Years ago, you might steal an apple on the corner—but

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by the time you got home, your grandmother would be waiting on the porch to speak to you about it. It's not a sign of love or respect to turn a 14-year-old loose to make all her/his own moral decisions. This is especially true in a nation where young people are systematically excluded from responsibility. The exercise of responsibility takes practice.

Many parents feel a bit desperate—"I can't do it all alone." They don't have to. After all, it was other people in the community who told your grandmother about that apple. Nowadays, grandmother may be in an old people's community or a nursing home. Even if she is, parents still can get help.

The Church. If they go to church, parents can make sure their church provides space and supervision for young people's activities—and not just social activities. Some people don't have a good place to study at home; the church can provide space for studying, and sponsor a tutoring program, too. It can enlist young people in doing the work of the church—helping old people, visiting people in institutions, cooking the church's Sunday dinner. Clubs and other community organizations can help parents in similar ways. The main thing is to ask questions and make suggestions and try things out until you find out what kind of activities the young people want, and how they want them organized. They may just want space for a project of their own, they may want transportation, they may want instruction or supervision. Then what they want has to be hammered out against what the church or club is able and willing to provide. After a trial period, the whole thing may have to be renegotiated. Instant success is common only on TV and that's a good lesson for both young people and well-meaning adults.

Public Officials. Most parents are eligible to vote, too, so they can work to elect candidates who will help them. School board and city elections have the most obvious effect on the kind of place children will grow up in.

What the schools teach, the physical and mental comfort of school buildings, the quality of books and equipment, the standards of conduct and type of discipline, the degree of democracy and student responsibility in the schools, the availability of credible work-study programs—all can be determined by school board policy. Unfortunately, school boards don't always concentrate their efforts on these issues. They sometimes assign priority to saving money, or keeping the tax rate down. In these cases, the results of miseducation raise the costs of other city services, such as law enforcement and public assistance. However, because the school board isn't held responsible for those budgets, it continues to hold its own budget down.

A city government can do several things to let young people grow up with confidence and sound ideas. It can establish standards of honesty, responsiveness to citizens, and public service. It can ensure that streets are safe and clean; that parks are pleasant and conveniently located, and that they have the staff and facilities for games. It can establish equitable tax policies that make business pay its fair share of the costs of city services. It can enforce the law fairly, avoid harassment and brutality, make sure offenders are punished, work with other governments at all levels to create correctional institutions that encourage inmates to abandon crime—and help them do so after their release. A city can even take steps to get local industries and businesses to cooperate in work-study programs.

State and national officials have less immediate effect on the neighborhood and the school, but state laws can affect curriculum, textbooks, teaching conditions, or student rights; laws that affect money can be passed at either level.

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Parents can urge all these officials to actions they think will help them raise their children to be competent, confident, and responsible. When the officials do badly, parents can question the candidates in the next election, get (and write down) promises—maybe run candidates of their own choosing. That's a lot of work—but the chance of better government isn't the only repayment. Young people will see their parents putting in some time and hard work because they care about them. They'll learn something, too, about the democratic process—and probably about perseverance in overcoming failure. Students in Compton have already recognized the power of the ballot. They've started their own voter registration drive—and they've already gotten some opposition. Somehow their registration volunteer can't get enough registration forms for them. Compton's parents have an unusual chance to support their children by fighting beside them for the voter education drive.

Parents *can't* do it all alone. Sometimes they'll back the wrong candidate or the wrong proposal. Sometimes they'll lose, even when they're right—about an election or a school policy or a household rule. But they can make a difference, and it can be the decisive difference, to their own or someone else's children.

School System Staff

Within the limits of school board policies, available resources, and the law, the school system staff is responsible for what happens to students while they're at school. This responsibility takes different forms for administrators and teachers.

Administrators, from the superintendent to the assistant principal, have to be aggressive to get what they need for their schools. Too often, they, like school boards, concentrate on other goals—making the schools look peaceful, getting a good reputation, securing a promotion. Administrators who are afraid to let the quality of their leadership speak for itself attract community suspicion. "These folks just drain our time and money and drag us down," said one community spokesperson. Administrators' real responsibility lies in securing the essential resources of education:

- Courses that will teach students what they must know—in order to earn a living, to understand the histories and cultures that affect their lives, and to use humanity's experience in making their decisions.

- Textbooks and materials that will interest students and give them a true picture of the world. Administrators may get these books and materials through the school board, the federal government, private foundations, cookie sales, or writing and duplicating their own—so long as they get them.

- Modern laboratory facilities—not just for science, but for career education courses—whether they get them from established school sources, the Chamber of Commerce, the Lions Club, or the corporation branch in the industrial park.

- Teachers who are dedicated to teaching the students in their classes and are able to teach them. This means administrators must build teachers' morale. For one thing, they must recognize and support teachers who inspire the respect of their students, especially of their "difficult" students. Their assignments and promotions and other personnel decisions must be obviously fair and based on competence and performance. A teacher strike in Compton was followed by concentrated petty harassment of education association and strike leaders. If they're driven out of the system, the morale of all teachers will be driven lower.

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Administrators' directives must be precise, so that teachers and students know exactly what the rules are. They must back up teachers' just complaints against students—and students' just complaints against teachers. They must work out, with teachers, procedures for incidents of violence, accident, or school disruption, and make sure every teacher knows those procedures. In Compton as in other schools across the nation, these procedures should include a list of people who can talk to students and parents who are fluent only in Spanish, or, say, Japanese, or Tagalog. Teachers who aren't bilingual have to have that kind of support for emergencies.

Administrators must give teachers the means to improve their teaching when that's necessary. The education association can help them plan the courses or counseling that teachers need.

Among administrators, a principal has a particularly heavy responsibility. She/he sets the tone of the school, lets teachers and students know what to expect and what is expected of them. One Compton secondary school changed a lot when it got a new principal this year. All the teachers now teach reading—the reading that students need in order to learn their subject. Different grade levels "own"—decorate and look after—different areas of the school. A student advisory council meets with the principal whenever they have something to discuss. Students who are persistently disruptive or break rules in other ways go to a special room where they do their classwork in a small, closely supervised group. Violence? The Project Neglect team didn't hear about any serious violence in the school—another change from last year.

Teachers find it a challenge just to keep on trying. It's tempting to blame the school board or the central office or the principal for everything—how can an isolated teacher make up for all their shortcomings? It's very tempting when there are fights every day in your class, and last week you took a knife away from a student for the eleventh time since September. But a teacher who wants to really teach, not just get paid for teaching, has to do more than just try to survive six periods a day.

The Project Neglect team got ideas from some of the teachers in Compton. "Violence? No. . .there hasn't been any in this class all year." That's right, said the students. No violence in this class. What is it about these particular teachers? Various students of theirs, questioned in an undertone, all came up with variations on one old, sentimental-sounding answer: "She cares." In Compton, that's a very practical answer. The teachers who care seem to be the only ones who are able to teach anything.

Just caring is not enough unless the students know about it. They know about it in Compton when a teacher spends time with them outside of class, without being paid to. That teacher could be relaxing or earning needed extra money or going to San Francisco for the weekend. Instead, she/he is working with students on their school problems, personal problems—whatever they bring.

Students praise one teacher who has overcome the limitations of a dry and obsolete text. Her tools are a duplicating machine and a fine teaching style. She shows she's serious about teaching, so students know she cares.

Another part of caring seems to be recognizing the different personalities and backgrounds of the students. Students notice which teachers recognize each student as an individual, which teachers take the trouble to learn about their students' cultures. Long-time Compton teachers have been asked to teach first middle-class whites, then middle-class and poor Afro-Americans, and now Chicanos, Mexicans, and Samoans. The school system hasn't given them the information and support they need in order to teach those students. Nevertheless, some teachers have gotten that information themselves; they get support from their students; and they teach well.

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The teachers who care expect students to meet certain standards of behavior. There's a shade of surprise in the answer "Violence? No . . ." That teacher never expected any violence in the classroom. Maybe her students have too much respect for her and for themselves.

Caring—in the conventional sense of being an enthusiastic defender of everything young people do—isn't the answer. The answer in Compton seems to be doing things that show respect for students and determination to teach them.

Every teacher doesn't know by instinct how to do these things. Overcoming isolation in the classroom is a first step: teachers can get help from one another. Through the education association they can decide on standards and set out to bring all the teachers in the system up to those standards. They can put pressure on the school system to get the kinds of training they need. Any teacher who can learn to teach the students in her/his class must have ample opportunity to do so. On the other hand, the teacher who can't or won't use that opportunity does not belong in the classroom.

Students, like the adults in the schools, can easily talk themselves out of responsibility. Excuse is plentiful.

- Students have teachers and parents and maybe the police all causing them various kinds of trouble.

- Our society gives them examples. High school seniors can't remember a time before the Cold War; sixth-graders were born with the first Kennedy assassination and grew up with Vietnam on TV.

- The economy was bad for most of these students years before the media—let alone the President—admitted it was bad for the nation. The unemployment rate for young Afro-Americans is usually about the same as the national rate during the Depression of the 1930's.

- Morality? Values? Look at Watergate. Look at corporate tax rates. Look at the CIA.

- In short, the argument runs, why should students have higher standards than national public figures? Standards won't get them a job; there are no jobs. Even a job just means probably paying a higher tax rate than your employer—and being more honest than some members of the government that gets those taxes. This line of reasoning has been followed by many disillusioned people in the past few years. Young Americans, just because they are young, are even more likely than other Americans to want instant results for every effort they make. Or else.

Or else what? The only threat within in their power is the threat of wasting their own lives—through violence, drunk driving, drugs, just living to buy things, doing nothing at all.

To make that kind of threat, people have to be desperate. They also have to believe that they, personally, aren't worth saving. Desperation must have canceled the will to survive, the belief that they can have lives worth fighting for. Frustration—*always* facing impossible odds—must have worn away the self-respect that can say, "The President—or the principal—has low standards; I have high standards."

Clearly, however, students don't have to give up; they *don't* all give up. The students who talked with the Project Neglect team in Compton haven't given up. It

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helps to have strong support from parents, but some survive without it. It helps to have the encouragement of a teacher or a pastor; it's very difficult indeed if no adult shows care. Sometimes friends keep one another struggling on. A young person has to be very strong to survive with nothing but unshakeable faith in her/his own ability. Even that happens.

Surviving, saving oneself, means getting different kinds of skills. For one thing, there aren't enough jobs for everybody who wants one, although there should be. But there are jobs for those who have more skills than the others who want those jobs. Part of surviving is getting the skills to get a job. In getting job skills, people will probably have to practice other kinds of skills—resourcefulness, practicality, planning, persistence. The same kinds of skills, combined with many kinds of information, can be used to start a business.

When they have the skills to survive, young people may start to want to do more than survive. They can save time by learning from other people's experience as well as their own. Resourcefulness, persistence and the rest will help them get at the usable information that's coded in the world's history, literature, science, philosophy. It's easier if the school, or just one teacher, or a librarian helps. It's possible with just public and institutional libraries.

Young people can also use their survival skills to help their younger sisters and brothers respect themselves and live. This chain of teaching and learning begins with the young people in school now, but it will have to go on for a long time. One student summed up the situation in Compton: "It's not so much the violence we're afraid of; it is the future."

BACKGROUND READING

More reports, articles, and court decisions on school violence and student rights are appearing every week. These are a handful of the readings available at the present time.

California State Department of Education. *A Report on Conflict and Violence in California High Schools.* Sacramento: the Department, 1973. 30 pp.

Institute for Development of Educational Activities. *The Problem of School Security.* Dayton: the Institute, 1974. 24 pp.

National School Public Relations Association. *Vandalism and Violence: Innovative Strategies Reduce Cost to Schools.* Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1971, 57 pp.

Today's Education. "Teacher Opinion Poll [Student Violence]." *Today's Education*, September-October, 1974. p. 105.

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THE PRICE OF LEARNING ENGLISH: ACCULTURATION OR CULTURAL ANNIHILATION?

Introduction

In January 1974, the Supreme Court rendered its landmark decision in the case of *Lau* v. *Nichols*. To schoolchildren who don't speak English fluently, the date is as significant as May 1954 has been for children in segregated schools. The 1954 case, *Brown* v. *Board of Education*, made segregation illegal. *Lau* v. *Nichols* concerns another kind of denial of educational opportunity. In its decision, the Court specifically stated that children have the right to be taught the English they need in order to understand, and learn in, classes taught in English.

> Basic English skills are at the very core of what these public schools teach. Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the educational program, he must already have acquired those basic skills is to make a mockery of public education.[1]

The *Lau* decision doesn't mean that students are to sit uncomprehending through five classes a day while they're learning English in one.

> We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful.[2]

In short, they daily fall further behind their English-speaking peers. Therefore, their right to equal education means they will be taught in their own language what they can't yet learn in English. Teaching English, teaching in English, and teaching in the students' native language all are elements of what is called "bilingual education."

Further, the Supreme Court in its *Brown* decision recognized that students need to respect themselves and their own background if they are to learn well. Children who don't speak English at home don't just need to be taught English; they need to find their language and culture respected in the school. In addition, all children need to know and respect the various cultures of our society. So what is needed is education that's multicultural as well as bilingual.

San Francisco's Task Force on Bilingual Education summarizes the principles of the kind of education that's needed. They reason—

1. That the primary means by which a limited or non-English speaking child learns is through the use of such child's native language and culture;

2. That using the native language to teach other subjects allows the education of the child to continue uninterruptedly from home to school, thus preventing his retardation in subject matter while he learns English;

3. That teaching a child to read first in the language he brings with him when he enters school facilitates his learning to read and write in a second language because the basic skills to reading and comprehension are generally transferable from one language to another;

4. That curriculum which incorporates the student's familiar experiences, community, history, and cultural heritage will help build pride and self-confidence in the student, and by being more relevant to the student's personal experiences, heightens his interest and motivation in school;

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5. That by integrating the language and cultural background of all students, bilingual-bicultural education reinforces and increases the communication between home and school, and between different ethnic groups, thus improving the student's motivation and achievement and reducing interracial misunderstanding.

The *Lau* decision affects schools from Bangor and New York to Dallas and Santa Fe and San Diego. It affects children who speak French or Spanish, Navajo, Tagalog or Samoan. However, the suit was brought on behalf of Chinese speaking children in San Francisco. To see the conditions that prompted the suit—and what has resulted from the Supreme Court's momentous decision—NEA's Project Neglect team on Asian bilingual education conducted its study in the Asian community there.

As the team visited schools and held hearings, both teachers and aides and community members gave generously of their time and information. What it found are problems and possibilities it believes are typical of school districts where not all students speak English fluently.

"RECOGNIZING THAT WE LIVE IN A MULTI-LINGUAL AND MULTI-CULTURAL COUNTRY, IT IS THE POLICY OF THE SFUSD TO RESPECT AND NURTURE THE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE OF EACH INDIVIDUAL STUDENT WHILE PREPARING HIM FOR PARTICIPATION IN A PREDOMINANTLY ENGLISH SPEAKING SOCIETY . . ."

Bilingual Policy Statement
San Francisco Unified School District

Asian history in America is long. Pilipinos had come to the West Coast in galleons before the Mayflower left Plymouth. The already sizable Asian population of the San Francisco area has been growing rapidly since the early 1960s, when immigration law reform made the city a major port of entry. Yet Asians in San Francisco are still being treated as aliens.

At present, the city is the home of 117,500 Asians and Asian Americans. They make up 17.2 percent of the total population there. The children make up 28 percent of the students in the San Francisco Unified School District (SFUSD). More precisely, according to District figures, 15.8 percent are Chinese, 7.3 percent are Pilipino, 1.7 percent are Japanese, .5 percent are Korean, and 2.7 percent are "other non-white"—they speak Samoan, Arabic, Hindi, Burmese, Vietnamese, and Pacific Island languages.

Nobody knows how many of the children speak English well enough to actually learn in "regular" classes. The District's estimates of how many do *not* are based on teachers' opinions. These figures rose from 5,269 in 1969 to 9,084 in 1973—then inexplicably fell to 4,911 by December 1974. According to San Francisco's Task Force on Bilingual Education, the actual number is probably more than 10,000. A 1972 survey found 20,000 children whose home language is other than English.

Some things about the situation, however, are known all too clearly. According to Task Force figures, in 1974, about 400 children were in "reception" programs for recent arrivals. There were 2,953 children in English as a Second Language (ESL) programs. About 1,500 were in bilingual education programs; because of integration requirements, about half of these were English-speaking.

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"ASIAN KIDS WERE NO PROBLEM UNTIL THEY GOT ALL THESE SPECIAL PROGRAMS."

San Francisco Unified School District personnel say there has to be a "significant number" of Asians in one grade, in one school, before a special program is warranted. What is a "significant number?" "Fifty."

"Integration" has dispersed almost all Asians so that each school has too few for special programs. Yet what purpose of integration is served by putting together students who can't talk to each other? Thousands of children sit day after day in classes taught in a language they can't understand.

The children in what one principal calls "the Americanization—uh, ESL program" are little better off. They are in fact "pulled out" of class to study English for 30 to 40 minutes a day. The rest of their time passes in "regular" classes, when they can understand whatever words they've learned so far—and that's all. What they understand may be far above or below their level of knowledge in the subject. Although they come from extremely varied educational backgrounds in Asia, their placement is dictated by their facility in English. It's not surprising that some young people drop out of school.

> A Korean woman and her son lived alone. From time to time, the woman had to go to the hospital. The boy got into fights at school; sometimes a person gets belligerent when people say things to him that he can't understand. School officials tried to find someone who could talk to him in his own language. Finally, they found a Korean-American, but she spoke only English. Meanwhile, they had warned the boy he'd be expelled if he fought any more. Before the Korean-American could get a bilingual person to the school, the boy had been expelled and disappeared.

Some who drop out join gangs where they can speak their own language; they become part of the "delinquency problem." Whether they physically drop out or keep on going to school, many other students are damaged. A situation that combines inability to make oneself understood with blurred, incomprehensible auditory impressions would be considered cruel if inflicted on a laboratory animal. In a short time, the combination turns some happy, confident, inquiring children into guarded, apparently sullen, institutional inmates.

Too often, no one in the school—or even known to the school—can speak the Asian child's language. One Project Neglect team member asked a teacher,

> Suppose you get a Vietnamese student in your class. What do you do?
>
> Well, I don't speak any Vietnamese, but I try to make the child feel at home. And I just go on teaching.
>
> Is there anyone in your class who can speak Vietnamese?
>
> No
>
> Isn't there any place else the child could go? Some special school or special class?
>
> I don't think so . . . But you'd be surprised how fast they learn.

Korean children are especially badly served, because many teachers count Koreans as Chinese.

> A Korean child was hit by a car in a school parking lot. No one could talk to her mother on the phone . . .

California has 30,000 teachers who can't get work in the schools, and more are graduated every year. California needs 20,000 bilingual/multicultural teachers. Many

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unemployed teachers could be taught to speak and teach in Asian languages, but California has no program providing such preparation. Teachers from Asian countries could be given whatever additional preparation they need for certification. Yet California has no program providing such preparation. This kind of waste results in case after case of valuable teaching ability being undervalued or lost. Consider one English-speaking Pilipino. She has a university education. She also has 22 years' teaching experience. She is employed as a "paraprofessional."

In another case, a whole program is being lost. There, a qualified Euro-American teacher is working as an aide. As a result, the program's pupil-teacher ratio is too high. Because the district says it has a job freeze, the teacher can't be classified and paid as a teacher, although he does a teacher's work. The District has refused to discuss an offer of private funding. Instead, it's discontinuing the program. Where will the pupils go to school? How will they learn? How will the "aide's" ability be used to help students? According to the District, that's not the point—the point is the pupil-teacher ratio and the "job freeze."

"WELL, WE BUY OUR OWN PAPER."

The situation is inhumane for the students, and for parents and teachers as well. It's also fiscally ludicrous. The San Francisco Unified School District spends about $2,000 a year on each student. It's wasted on the thousands who sit in classes where they can't learn. Yet bilingual teachers could be hired to fill vacancies, at no greater cost than monolingual recruits. Bilingual classes don't have to be "extra" classes.

A few hundred Asian children are in bilingual programs—Japanese, Pilipino or Chinese. One bilingual teacher is responsible for all the Korean students in the District. The District provides bilingual programs one teacher (who may not be bilingual) for each class. Little money comes from the state; at the secondary level, California sponsors two bilingual programs, one in San Diego in Spanish and one in San Francisco in Chinese. The federal government pays for teachers or materials for some programs—for a while. But when the state or federal money stops coming, the program stops going. The Chinese secondary program teaches social studies, math, and science in Chinese. The materials were translated into Chinese, and the teachers were promised a copy for each student in their classes. Only a few copies were actually produced, however—in fact, just one copy of each text for each school.

This is symptomatic of an acute and widespread problem—the dearth of good materials, both in English and in Asian languages. Asian texts aren't published at all; English materials stereotype Asians and ignore Asian Americans. Nevertheless, the students in the Chinese bilingual program are learning math, science, and social studies while they get ESL for their English course. Within the limitations imposed, the program is working. But nobody knows what will happen to it when the grant expires this year. In general, programs are started when outside money becomes available, abandoned when outside funds are withdrawn.

Dependence on federal money has other drawbacks. Teachers in the Japanese-English bilingual program, for example, don't find out until October what positions are funded. That makes it hard to recruit staff in the first place. In September, the teachers work for nothing. They don't want the children who are starting out in the program to spend their first weeks in school, bewildered in "regular" classes.

This program consists of one class each from kindergarten through third grade. Last year, the District allocated three classes a total of $300 for books, materials, and

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supplies. The teachers—like teachers in many other schools and situations—used as much of their own money as they could. Each teacher was subsidizing the school district with as much as $20 a month. The parents gave bake sales to raise money. Then the *Japanese government* supplied some of the deficiencies of the American school system by sending $3,000 to buy materials. Since then the SFUSD has had a ready-made response to all requests: "But you *have* money." The bilingual teachers make a point of sharing what they have—films, puppet shows, holiday programs and plays—with the regular teachers in the school.

"EVERYBODY SHOULD BE TREATED THE SAME WAY. AFTER ALL, THIS IS AMERICA, AND THE SOONER THEY GET USED TO IT, THE BETTER."

Despite any friendly overtures from bilingual teachers, many regular professional staff resent bilingual teachers and their students. "Why should they get all the attention?" they say, thinking of the obstacles they themselves face. A principal may fear that the bilingual program will grow a grade level every year, until it takes up a sizable part of his school.

Although racism against Asians isn't publicized much, it's hard to ignore.

> "I was sitting at the desk in the library," said a Korean teacher. "A boy came up and hit me on the head. I said, 'Why did you do that?' He ran away. I followed him and asked him again, but he didn't say anything. I asked his teacher, 'Please find out why he hit me.' But no one ever told me."

Adults know how to be more vicious. One teacher made a Japanese boy stand in the corner all day on December 7.

"TEACHING KIDS IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IS CONTRARY TO INTEGRATION."

Let's look at one of the programs that exemplifies good bilingual multicultural education. A third of the students have come from Japan, a third are Japanese American, and a third are "other"—mostly Afro-American and Euro-American. Each class has a teacher and an aide—one is more proficient in Japanese, the other in English. The staff not only is bilingual, but represents as many cultures as the students. One teacher, for example, is a Black man from the French-speaking West Indies. He speaks 10 languages, several of them Asian. When you visit a class, you might find a Japanese child "showing and telling" in English, an Afro-American child writing Japanese characters on the chalkboard and a Euro American child practicing her part in the class play—in Japanese. And there seems to be no "reading problem" here.

"OUR KIDS ARE SITTING IN THE CLASSROOM DAY AFTER DAY—YEAR AFTER YEAR—AND NOT LEARNING. NOBODY WAS DOING ANYTHING ABOUT IT. SOMEBODY JUST HAD TO DO SOMETHING ABOUT IT, AND THAT'S WHAT WE'RE DOING."

In many ways, the Asian communities try to overcome the deficiencies of city and school services. Newcomers committees help recent arrivals get work, housing, and the best possible school program. Communities sponsor classes outside school hours. In Chinatown, the YWCA offers courses taught in Chinese. The Chinese community has set up an English Language Skills Center. Parents give strong and practical support to

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school bilingual programs. Parents of Japanese children in the bilingual program, for example, spent a Saturday helping build a "jungle of logs" for the school playground.

Community groups are increasingly sophisticated, too, in finding and using public and private resources. They work with state legislators, federal agencies, members of Congress. They are now also working with teachers associations—the San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association (SFCTA), the California Teachers Association (CTA), and the National Education Association (NEA). Each of these organizations can help in different ways.

- The NEA can work for passage and funding of federal bilingual education laws. Through publications, the mass media, and conferences, it can express its advocacy of bilingual education, explain the need for it, help plan for it.

- The CTA can use the same means at the state level. Its influence on state certification procedures and teacher education standards is especially important.

- The SFCTA can work in direct partnership with community groups, working for the goals they seek within the schools. It can negotiate standards of support for bilingual education—in staffing levels, materials, inservice education. It can negotiate for bilingual multicultural programs to serve the Asian and Spanish-surname children who need them, as the *Lau* decision requires.

Such a community-association partnership is already forming. In the fall of 1974, the SFCTA invited the Asian community to outline ways the association can help improve education for Asian children. In response, the San Francisco Task Force on Bilingual Education has given the associations a list of six things to work on. The association at each level—local, state, and national—can carry out the items suited to its particular resources and range of operations. The six points are practical things that can actually be carried out, most of them in a year or half a year:

1. The associations should issue a position paper on the best ways to carry out the *Lau* mandate for bilingual/bicultural education.

2. The NEA should develop accurate means of finding out just which and how many students need bilingual programs in order to learn in school. The school district's jumpy figures show that accurate standards are badly needed. NEA should work, too, to get fair means of testing the knowledge of students who don't speak fluent English. Specifically, it should pressure NIE to conduct research for this purpose.

3. The NEA should try to get full funding of federal legislation that supports bilingual education, i.e., Title VII or EPDA.

4. The associations should seek to get more bilingual/multicultural teachers into the schools. The national association can publicize the need, the state association can work for training programs and certification, and the local association can work for inservice education for all teachers, and for hiring of bilingual teachers. The new Education Professions Development Act should make provision for preparing the bilingual/multicultural teachers who are needed.

5. The state association can work in the legislature for passage of SB 7, State Senator Moscone's proposal for a comprehensive bilingual/multicultural education program.

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5. Education associations should publicly commit themselves to working with community organizations.

The formulation and acceptance of these six points is important to the education associations as well as to all communities whose first language is other than English. They're the first steps in what can become a model of teacher-community partnership. They can also initiate a model partnership of local, state, and national education associations.

"MY GOD, WHY DO YOU WANT TO TEACH THEM ANOTHER LANGUAGE?"

The plaintiffs in the *Lau* case needed to learn English before they could learn anything else in American schools. Educational neglect keeps students like them from receiving any benefit from schooling. However, it is also neglect, although barely touched on in this report, to allow any child living in the United States in this century to grow up totally monolingual and monocultural. It is increasingly difficult to survive—politically, economically, or as social beings—in complete ignorance of the languages and cultures of other peoples of this country or of the world.

United States cities already have some of the largest urban Spanish-speaking populations in the world. English-speaking children now in school are increasingly likely to work with—or for—Spanish-speaking people. They may be voting for—or seeking votes from—Spanish-speaking people. As they move from one part of the country to another, they may find themselves in a neighborhood where many people speak Chinese or the grocery carries Caribbean fruits and vegetables.

It is not just other American languages and cultures that are becoming more important to Euro-Americans. The whole world is opening up. More and more, Americans may be employed by Japanese or German companies, or be dealing with African or West Asian customers. They may be studying Russian scientific journals or attending conferences conducted in Hindi.

Then, too, they'll enjoy life more if they're familiar with more than one language and culture. Many people acknowledge that "variety is the spice of life." Fewer reflect that all spice once came from the "spice islands" of the East Indies. Now, as then, life can be enriched by looking to other cultures.

All these factors are coming to weigh more and more heavily with parents of English-speaking children. In a few years, letting those children grow up monolingual will be a new kind of educational neglect.

FOOTNOTES

[1] *Lau* v. *Nichols*, 94 S.Ct. 786, 788 (1974)
[2] *Ibid.*

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Children who come from environments where the dominant language is not English have suffered tremendously in school. Between 5 and 7 million children come to school speaking a language other than English. Their progress in school is hindered by their inability to speak English and consequently many drop out of school. In the Southwest approximately 40 percent of the Mexican-American students do not complete high school and in Boston almost 90 percent of the Puerto Rican students drop out before they begin high school.[1] The students who drop out face the handicaps of higher unemployment, less income, and less opportunity.

Passage and Results of the Bilingual Education Act

In 1967, after a Congressional investigation, the Bilingual Education Act was passed. This Act (Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act) was designed to meet the special educational needs of children with limited English-speaking ability. Funds were available on a project basis for programs in schools which had large numbers of non-English-speaking children from low-income families.

Bilingual education involves the coordinated use of both the native language and English. There is evidence that using the child's native language as a medium of instruction along with instruction in English prevents retardation in academic skill and performance. The program is also intended to augment a child's self-esteem and the understanding of his cultural heritage.

A model bilingual program treats the child whose language is different as advantaged, not disadvantaged. It challenges the assumption that schools should offer only one curriculum in one language (English), and dispels the idea that the child must change to meet the needs of the school. It also rejects the idea that the main objective of the school is to wipe out all differences in style, heritage, and language.

As a result of the Bilingual Education Act there has been an increasing national awareness of the need for bilingual education. In 1973, 110,000 children participated in 217 projects funded under the Act.[2] Bilingual education is not only for children who speak Spanish, although this language group is the most visible by virtue of the fact that they are the largest language minority in the United States. While in numerical terms they demonstrate the greatest need, this does not preclude the inclusion and expansion of bilingual education programs for other language groups under the Act. Thus, while 80 percent of the projects serve Spanish-speaking groups, 23 other language groups benefit under the Act.[3]

Unmet Needs of Bilingual Education

Although the Bilingual Education Act has been successful in establishing projects and making people aware of the necessity for instituting these programs, there are many problems. The need for further bilingual education is enormous. Approximately 5 million children come to school severely deficient in their knowledge of English. Operating programs reached only 111,000 of those children last year. The United States Commission on Civil Rights found that less than 3 percent of Mexican-American students have participated in any bilingual education program, and that bilingual programs are reaching less than 1 percent of the Chicano students in Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico.

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Programs in English as a Second Language (ESL) are sometimes used instead of bilingual programs. The object of ESL is to make non-English speakers more competent in English. The program does not take the child's background into consideration and there is no effort to include cultural material. Some educators view ESL merely as a crash course in English. The school curriculum requires no modification and consequently these programs are relatively inexpensive. Approximately 5.5 percent of Mexican-American students in the Southwest receive some kind of ESL instruction.[4]

In some schools, children are reprimanded for speaking their native language. In *Crisis in the Classroom,* Silberman gives some examples of how schools have perpetuated cultural annihilation. He mentions instances of monitors in school hallways taking down names of students speaking in Spanish, or students being fined a penny if they answer a question in Spanish.

Some states have adopted legislation relating to bilingual education programs while others have legislation pending. Where teachers once risked penalties for not teaching in English, the trend is now toward state statutes that require school districts to have a bilingual or ESL program for any student whose native language is not English. For example, Massachusetts has a mandatory bilingual program and California has enacted a state policy of quality bilingual education to be developed throughout the state.

The Scarcity of Bilingual Teachers

There are severe shortages of qualified bilingual/bicultural teachers, and as a result it is difficult to successfully implement bilingual programs. The National Education Association estimates that in order to bring the number of teachers up to the ratio of Spanish-speaking students, 84,000 Spanish-speaking teachers are needed. In New York, while 26 percent of the students are Puerto Rican, only 1 percent of the teachers are Puerto-Rican.[5] Puerto Rican students do not necessarily need a Puerto Rican teacher in a bilingual program because presumably any teacher who has participated in a bilingual training program would be qualified to teach. The problem relates to the bicultural part of the program where it is really essential to have someone who has had the same cultural background and similar experiences. Shortages are equally acute among teachers who speak native American languages, Portuguese, Chinese, French, Russian, Japanese, Greek, and other languages.

The existence of bilingual programs provides the incentive for the preparation of minority teachers. However, it will take many years before programs are fully implemented to recruit and train qualified bilingual teachers. Universities and colleges have recently initiated programs in bilingual/bicultural teacher education. Currently many teachers are often excused from special certification if they are already teaching in bilingual/bicultural programs. As soon as inservice training programs for teachers are expanded, certification requirements should become more stringent.

The scarcity of bilingual teachers not only shortchanges the students, but also hinders effective parent-teacher communication. Many parents are unable to communicate with the teachers or participate in their children's education because of the language barrier.

A Landmark Supreme Court Decision

On January 21, 1974, a landmark decision for bilingual education was handed down by the Supreme Court. *Lau v. Nichols* was a lawsuit which challenged the San Francisco school system for failing to provide appropriate instruction to 1,800 Chinese

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students who did not speak English. In a unanimous decision the Court held that the students were being discriminated against on the basis of national origin in violation of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Court also said that providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, and teachers did not constitute equal treatment. Rather, the school districts must establish programs to give non-English-speaking students an opportunity to benefit from their education.

Education Amendments Act of 1974

President Ford recently signed into law the Education Amendments Act of 1974, which included a revision of the Bilingual Education Act. The President took into account the ramifications of the Supreme Court decision in *Lau v. Nichols,* which underscores the need for a continuing federal commitment to bilingual education.

The 1974 Amendments were the first major changes in federal assistance to bilingual education since 1967. Before the enactment of these amendments, federal funding was available only in areas where high concentrations of children from low-income families existed, i.e., those families earning less than $3,000 per year or those receiving welfare (AFDC) payments. These maximum income levels have now been raised, allowing federal funding to reach many more children. In the recent amendments, a school is deemed to have a high concentration of children of limited English-speaking ability if these children constitute at least 5 percent of the enrollment of the school or at least 25 children.

The 1974 Amendments also provide funds for the development of instructional materials and programs, and preservice and inservice training of teachers. Also, the Amendments provide for adult education projects, particularly for parents whose children are participating in bilingual programs.

Since 1967 federal support of bilingual education has made great strides. Twelve states have enacted legislation to insure that bilingual programs are instituted. The challenge for bilingual education is to expand and to improve existing programs to meet the needs of 5 million children who come to school with deficiencies in English.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Wright, Lawrence. "The Bilingual Education Movement at the Crossroads." *Phi Delta Kappan* 55: 18; November 1973.

[2]Linguistic Reporter. "Revisions in Title VII Became Law." *Linguistic Reporter,* November 1974. p. 4.

[3]*Ibid.*

[4]Cranston, Alan. "Why The Bilingual Education Amendments Deserve Support." *Phi Delta Kappan* 56: 38; September 1974.

[5]Wright, Lawrence. *op. cit.*, p. 185.

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KANAWHA COUNTY, WEST VIRGINIA

A Textbook Study of Cultural Conflict

The NEA inquiry into the textbook controversy in Kanawha County, West Virginia, is incorporated by reference into the compilation of *Project Neglect* on-site investigation reports. Copies of this report are included in the packets of Conference participants.

The NEA Inquiry Panel in Kanawha County focused on the following questions:

> What are the possible consequences when public schools adopt instructional materials designed to instill in students a spirit of inquiry and to portray realistically the diverse cultures, races, life styles, and philosophies in our society — when parents insist on the teaching of "American values, morals, and beliefs," and demand a return to "traditional education"?
>
> What are the rights and responsibilities of parents, students, educators, and school boards in determining the content of educational programming?
>
> Where is the line drawn between legitimate public concern for and criticism of public school curricula and criticism that is illegitimate and educationally destructive?

Although the controversy in Kanawha County has been widely referred to as "the textbook controversy," the issues at the heart of that local dispute have to do with the basic nature, purpose, and changing methods of public education. How those issues are resolved will have profound effect, not only on the academic freedom of the classroom, but on the future of multi-cultural, multi-ethnic education in the public schools.

p. 26 Rank

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EDUCATIONAL NEGLECT OF WOMEN

Report of Grand Rapids Hearings

Introduction

Educational neglect can easily be seen in the inner city school that struggles with inadequate facilities, textbooks, teacher understanding and parent involvement; in the barrio where a basic lack of cross-cultural communication permeates the curriculum, school organization, school outcomes, and continues the maintenance of separate cultural boundaries between home and school; and in rural Appalachia where the issues of poverty, alienation, and textbooks highlight the faces of neglect. Another form of educational neglect, however, may be found in these communities and the rest of the communities that make up our society—the neglect of the education of women. Sexism, or the differential expectation and treatment of boys and girls, is found in each of these areas and in all other schools, even those that pride themselves on producing the brightest and the best. The manifestations of sexism in the schools are often subtle and are likely to be overlooked, since they tend to reflect the conditions of the larger society. The impact and the damage of sexism are great, however, in that one half of our total population is systematically tracked to roles that limit the development of full human potential and achievement; and the other half of the population is denied the opportunity of involvement in the full range of human experience. Both sexes are denied the full preparation in living, learning and working skills that are required for all fully functioning adults.

The existence of sex discrimination and sex role stereotyping in our society has been documented in research that has been conducted by economists, sociologists, psychologists, historians, political scientists, and linguists. National media have highlighted women's secondary status in the job world, the political world, the scientific world, and in nearly every other sphere of activity. The beginnings of this condition are found in our educational system, which both reflects and prepetuates the inequities of the society. When any group is not prepared to assume responsibility by acquiring the values, attitudes and skills that are necessary for that responsibility, a condition of equality is not possible.

During the planning of the conference on Educational Neglect, the question of the educational neglect of women was raised. The decision was made to include consideration of this issue as a form of neglect that is found as a variable of other forms of neglect. The following report represents the findings of the NEA Women's Rights Task Force during an intensive investigation of the problems related to sexism and an onsite visit and hearing on educational neglect of women, held in Grand Rapids, Michigan, January, 4, 5, and 6, 1975.

Grand Rapids

Grand Rapids was selected as the location for a site visit on the basis of the following criteria:

1. A midwestern location was desired to secure better coverage of the United States (other portions of the United States were involved in hearings of other forms of educational neglect.)

2. An urban, industrialized community was desired as a means of determining the ways that educational neglect of women was viewed in a context with other urban educational problems.

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3. A location was selected that included substantial segments of racial-ethnic minority populations.

Grand Rapids, a city of 206,000 residents, is an industrial, urban community facing many of the problems common to larger urban centers throughout the nation. The school population is made up of 44,039 students and 2,250 instructors and administrators. The racial-ethnic composition of the community includes 27.8% Black, 3.2% Spanish-surnamed, .8% Indian, .2% Asian American, and 67.9% White. The school system is considered a better than average system within the state by many of the persons whom the task force interviewed.

Faces of Educational Neglect of Women

The basic orientation of the NEA Women's Rights Task Force was to ascertain the varieties of educational neglect of women, the level of awareness of the problems, and solutions that might be found for eliminating the problems of sexism.

Throughout the visit to Grand Rapids, three major kinds of issues were raised. These included: Nature of the forms of Sexism; the relationship between racism and sexism; and the recommendations for action. The report is organized into these three areas.

Nature of Sexism

A majority of the persons who appeared at the hearing were women who identified themselves as mothers, teachers, representatives of community organizations, or representatives of womens' organizations. Site visits to the well-baby clinic of Franklin Hall Complex (a public housing facility), local schools, and with local administrators were undertaken as a means of gaining a more representative perspective of the concerns of the community. The individuals consulted could be classified into two groups -those who raised general concerns about the educational neglect of children; and those who raised specific concerns about the educational neglect of girls. The task force made an effort to obtain both perspectives. Examples of the first group include:

> . . . My problems and my concerns are for all children. What are we going to do for poor minority, poor white kids? If action efforts aren't going to benefit all kids, I can't support them. We should be watching out for all kids.

> . . . Women's rights problems are important but my heart goes out to kids whose parents come up to school and we have not worked out a clear cut way of parent communication with the schools.

> . . . I am concerned about the issue of racism. When I work with minority girls, I cannot distinguish the basis on which they are denied opportunities.

> . . . All kids are being shortchanged. I'm only one teacher but I can begin to deal with educational neglect in my classroom by making sure that every child feels important.

Others raised more specific concerns related to sexism.

> . . . I have two reasons for being involved in activities related to the elimination of sexism. My daughter Sarah who is 14 and my daughter Rachel who is 11.

> . . . Sexism limits the choices of all students. It is as hard on boys as it is on girls. Boys are given the message that life consists only of achievement in a job.

> . . . Schools continue to contribute to the instability of the family. They are taught that *She* is concerned with the home and family; *He* is concerned with making money. Girls need skills for career involvement, and boys need to learn skills necessary for effective participation in family and community activities.

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Although the persons contacted viewed the extensiveness of sexism in schools and its importance as a factor in educational neglect in different ways, it was clear that all of them were concerned about the schools. There was a general agreement that children were not obtaining the skills needed for development of their potential and that schools were not delivering these skills to children.

Some of the specific examples cited as evidence of sex role stereotyping in schools included the following:

Textbooks and Instructional Materials

Several teachers and parents cited sex role stereotyping in textbooks and instructional materials as a major evidence of sexism in schools. Several of the persons interviewed had been aware of the textbook controversy in Kalamazoo, Michigan, and had begun exploration of the degree to which the materials being used in Grand Rapids reflected the same under-representation of women or portrayal of women in stereotyped roles.

Examples of some of their comments were:

> . . . I visited my son's class and observed posters around the room depicting community helpers. Ten posters showed only one woman in the role of a community helper. The only woman shown was a nurse who was serving as an assistant to a doctor.

> . . . Career education materials seldom include pictures of women in professional roles. The information provided is stereotyped and inadequate. Students need information which can help them get in touch with themselves—their strengths and their weaknesses; which can give them a realistic view of the alternatives that are available for them; and which can assist them in good decision making and planning.

> . . . I have been interested in the content of family living courses. The textbooks in this area are some of the most stereotyped that I have seen. The dominant message is clear—the only role for women is to be a dutiful wife and mother.

The comments of the Grand Rapids citizens supported the findings of numerous research projects. The world of textbooks is largely a white, male world. In one study[1] of the best selling elementary school textbooks in five subject areas, 81% of the illustrations were white; while only 8% were Black and even fewer were American Indian, Latin American, Chicano or Asian. Females represented only 31% of the total of textbook illustrations, and adult women were a small proportion of the illustrations of females.

Other differences in the images of boys and girls were found in their activities—the world of boys was one of action and energy, whereas girls were shown as passive, watching and waiting for boys; in their traits – boys were encouraged to be skillful and adventurous, and girls were encouraged to pursue homemaking and grooming; and in their emotional expression – girls were shown expressing a wide range of emotion such as laughing, crying, and being affectionate, whereas boys were being taught to control their emotions by not crying and remaining strong and silent.

These images provide strong messages to children, shaping their behavior and limiting the choices for both boys and girls.

Segregated Classes and Groupings

The segregation of classes on the basis of sex has been prohibited by law since 1972 when Title IX of the Education Amendments was passed. The continuance of this practice was identified by persons during the hearing and the interviews.

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> . . . We continue to have separate physical education classes for boys and girls in the fifth and sixth grades. I think that it is important that physical education classes be coeducational. It is good for males and females to learn to work on a team together.
>
> . . . We have a high school course for teaching commercial cooking skills. Only boys are allowed in the class. When I asked the principal about this she explained that only boys are likely to be chefs.
>
> . . . This year our home economics and shop classes were opened to both sexes. Although the classes are open, kids are not being encouraged to take the integrated classes. In general, they are teaching *roles* (of housewife, and home repairmen) rather than the *skills*.

Observations of classroom groupings further raised questions about the frequency of segregating children on the basis of sex. Although there may be valid reasons for sex segregation, it is difficult to demonstrate that separate-but-equal programs are truly equal. A preschool program that encourages boys to play outdoors on equipment that facilitates large muscle development, while providing indoor crafts activities and miniature kitchens for girls, does not provide comparable experiences. Nor does a vocational education program that prepares boys for relatively well-paying careers in welding, auto-mechanics and printing, while preparing girls in the fields of home economics and secretarial work.

Physical Education and Competitive Athletics

Questions regarding inequities in physical education and competitive sports activities were mentioned by a few persons.

> . . . My daughter is an excellent athlete and would like to have the opportunity to be coached in a number of sports and participate in interschool competition. In our school, opportunities for intermural and interschool competition are very limited; with the exception of volleyball and basketball, girls just do not have opportunities for competitive sports.
>
> . . . At least outstanding minority males have been able to use athletic performance as a means of gaining opportunities. Even this has been shut off for the minority girl.
>
> . . . By contract, our women coaches receive less financial reward than do male coaches, even when they are performing essentially the same job.

These issues represent some of the same concerns that have been raised nationally. Highlighting the neglect of the development of the physical abilities and potential of women are limited opportunities for competitive experiences; unequal facilities and expenditures for women's programs; and the differential payment of women coaches.

School Personnel Behavior

One of the most consistent problems identified throughout the hearing and in subsequent interviews could be described as a general lack of awareness and sensitivity on the part of school personnel—teachers, counselors, and administrators. Some of the examples and comments cited were:

> . . . I overheard a teacher say, "Boys do better in the physical sciences and girls do better in the life sciences." When I confronted the teacher with this statement, he replied, "Well, they do."
>
> Of course, they do and will continue to do it as long as you and other teachers tell them that they are supposed to achieve in these areas.

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. . . An art teacher told my daughter, "Women are meant to be housewives, that's just the way things are."

. . . Teachers don't realize what they're doing because it is so much a part of our culture.

. . . In a career education class, fathers were asked to come in and talk about their jobs. Never was the possibility raised that women also work, nor was a woman asked to talk about her job.

. . . Career counseling and job counseling are deficient. Most counselors do not have adequate information to assist boys and girls in making good career decisions.

. . . Female students do not learn ways of asserting themselves and learning leadership skills. No one seems to be working on this problem.

. . . Teachers have to be more sensitive to the needs of children. They are more interested in subject matter than kids. We need teachers who care and who will walk that extra mile.

. . . When I have a conference with my children's teacher, I immediately feel the barriers. I feel defensive and afraid to confront the teacher for fear it will be taken out on my child.

. . . Teachers desperately need relevant in-service training programs. Presently the programs are designed by males and are irrelevant to most of our needs.

The most important factor in eliminating racial and sexual stereotypes in education is found in the behavior of school personnel. Administrators, teachers, counselors, and all other school personnel reflect what has been identified as the "nonconscious ideology" that assigns secondary status to women. We tend consciously or unconsciously to support differential roles and activities for boys and girls, to downgrade the importance of education for girls, and to focus on marriage and family roles rather than include career planning concerns. Frequently, we reward girls for passive, conforming behavior and boys for independent, aggressive behavior.

Perhaps the most serious concern evidenced during the site visit was the pervasiveness of community feeling that communications with the school were difficult. Seldom did citizens indicate a feeling of involvement or understanding of school activities. More frequently, the school was seen as an important but distant institution for their children.

One parent urged the task force to focus on ways of involving PTA's and parents. She indicated that teachers had welcomed her involvement in efforts to eliminate sexism in schools and she felt that teachers would welcome outside pressures that would lead to the provision of better training opportunities for teachers—both in in-service education and in pre-service education.

Women in the Education Profession

Many of the persons involved in the Grand Rapids site visit were teachers. Both male and female teachers indicated awareness of the sex role stereotyping within the education profession. Although the teaching profession has oftentimes been referred to as a "woman's profession," it is clear that that label does not apply when we examine the leadership and decision-making roles of the profession.

Women's entry into the education profession was based largely on economic considerations. Women were hired as teachers because their family responsibilities of caring for young children made elementary schools and, to a lesser degree, secondary schools a natural extension of that responsibility—and because they were a source of

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cheap labor. There was no conviction that elementary education was important or that women's participation was of great value. It was viewed as "natural" that men should predominate in secondary education, higher education, and administrative roles as these were considered the important tasks of the profession.

Although women gained participation and prestige during periods of national emergency and an expanding economy, recent years have evidenced a decreasing participation of women, particularly in administrative and decision-making roles. Between 1952 and 1973, the percentage of women teachers in elementary and secondary education decreased from 76 percent to 66 percent. The percentage of women principals in elementary schools decreased from 25 percent in 1967 to 19 percent in 1973, and in secondary schools from 10 percent in 1967 to 1 percent in 1973.

Concern about the decreasing participation of women and the leadership that women teachers have developed was evidenced by a number of persons included in the Grand Rapids site visit.

> . . . My way of dealing with the problems of sex role stereotyping is through the profession. I'm currently president of the MEA Women's Caucus. We are looking to make teachers more aware of how we treat children differently—how we stereotype them—and how we ourselves are stereotyped. Why is it that, although we are 65% of the profession, we have not been able to be aware of sex stereotyping? Perhaps it is related to the reasons that we become teachers. We recognize that teachers are the key to what happens in education, and if change is to result, we are going to have to change.
>
> . . . In Grand Rapids, we're seeing a fast decline of women administrators. In elementary schools, rarely are women appointed as principals. There are no women in the top echelons of educational administration. We're saying to the young girl, "you can be a teacher, but not an administrator."
>
> . . . Girls in schools have few role models of women administrators, to show them that women can play leadership roles.
>
> . . . The professional associations have not exerted enough leadership or raised the awareness of their own members.
>
> . . . We as women have to accept some responsibility for the lack of consideration of women's issues within the profession. We have negotiated discriminatory contracts that provide differential pay for male and female coaches. For that matter, how many members of negotiating teams are women? We can change that.
>
> . . . I'm surprised at the way the school system works. Teachers don't seem to realize how they are oftentimes being used on committees. There is a pretense of involvement of teachers, but they're puppets. The real power of the school system remains within an authoritarian structure.
>
> . . . Teachers are not using their power. The only times we hear from them is when economic issues are involved. They should be protesting for issues such as the need for humanizing the curriculum.
>
> . . . Women teachers often say that they do not want to work for a woman principal. Or, outstanding women teachers do not want to take on the additional study, effort and responsibility necessary to become an administrator.

The dialog in Grand Rapids outlined the many perceptions of the problem. It could be concluded that changing the situation will require action on the part of many—the general public in demanding equality of employment opportunities in schools; the teaching profession in raising the awareness of women and supporting the development of women's administrative competencies and experiences; and the administrative structure of the school system in developing fair criteria for the promotion of women and upgrading opportunities for women.

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Relationship Between Racism and Sexism

A continuing concern among the groups and individuals involved in the Grand Rapids site visit was the nature of the relationship between racism and sexism. Some members of the community indicated a substantial awareness of the problems of racism in Grand Rapids schools and indicated that the elimination of racism was their only concern for changing the schools. The majority of those contacted indicated that both concerns must be considered if schools were going to meet the needs of all children. The dialog on the subject included:

> . . . .I am not for zeroing in on feminist issues. What we really need are some solutions for poor kids in school.
>
> . . . .My concern is for the minority females in senior high schools. We find neglect in the total education system—for all kids. Our students are not provided a program that is flexible enough to meet their full potential.
>
> . . . .Sexism is an issue; but for many of us, the battle is sexism within the context of racism. These two cannot be separated. We must be aware of the need for a common strategy if improvement is to be made.
>
> . . . .Minority women are at the bottom of the economic ladder. There is a direct tie-in between the issues of racism-sexism and the economic system. The resulting discrimination begins in schools when minority girls are tracked into programs that will perpetuate limited economic opportunities.
>
> . . . .The problems of poverty and racism-sexism are, in large measure, the same.
>
> . . . .Although our school is supposed to be a model middle class school, my school district is not dealing with racism, sexism, or social elitism. The schools continue to "sort" children into roles that perpetuate the status quo.

It was clear that individuals and groups retained different priorities for changing the nature of schools. It was equally clear that the lack of dialogue and development of common understandings and strategies would insure maintenance of a pattern of educational neglect—for all students regardless of racial-ethnic group or sex.

The Grand Rapids hearing and investigation strongly substantiated the need for greater communications between proponents of racial and sexual equality. Much of the initial examinations of sex role stereotyping have overtly or covertly assumed that all groups of women experience the problem in the same ways or place the same values toward the goals of sexual equality. At this time, a greater awareness of the differences and similarities in the perspectives of groups of women and men needs to be developed; and effort must be given to the development of joint strategies to insure fairness and equality for all students.

Recommendations for Action

The Task Force invited all individuals and groups contacted to suggest recommendations for dealing with this serious area of educational neglect. In some instances, their recommendations included issues outside the school. These recommendations will be summarized in three categories—Recommendations for Changing the Schools; Recommendations for NEA and the Education Profession; and Recommendations Regarding Related Issues.

Recommendations for Changing Schools

1. Teachers and other instructional personnel within school systems should be required to attend in-service training which prepares them to recognize race and sex

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bias in instructional materials. Teachers should be provided with nonracist, nonsexist resources and be provided assistance with the development of supplementary materials to reduce the effect of biased materials.

2. All school personnel should be required to be involved in human relations training for dealing with sexism and racism in schools.

3. Teachers and counselors should be required to increase their skills in counseling of students.

4. School personnel must develop methods of improving and facilitating relationships with parents and involving them in the activities of the school.

5. Federal, state and local agencies must provide assistance to local schools in the implementation of Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments.

6. Course offerings in vocational and career education must be examined with respect to the lack of nonsexist, nonracist materials and the maintenance of sex-segregated classes or groupings.

7. Career counseling methods and materials must be improved to provide students with realistic assessments of themselves, the available opportunities, and the steps that are necessary for the attainment of their potential.

8. Physical education activities for boys and girls in elementary and secondary schools should be integrated, except in those instances when students' interests may result in sex-segregated classes.

9. Access to opportunities for competitive sports activities (facilities, coaching, uniforms, length of season, and competitive meets) for girls should be expanded and provided on an equal basis with the opportunities for boys.

10. School systems should be required to develop affirmative action programs for the employment of personnel and for the modification of educational programs.

11. Information regarding adequate nutrition for all, particularly young mothers, should be incorporated in the curriculum of secondary schools.

12. Efforts should be made to secure bilingual teachers and paraprofessionals to enhance school-community relations when schools are serving students who speak a second language.

Recommendations for NEA and for the Education Profession

1. NEA and its affiliates should actively press for the development of inservice training programs dealing with human relations issues, including sexism and racism. Provisions for such programs should be included in collective bargaining agreements.

2. NEA and NEA affiliates should continue to develop materials related to issues of racism and sexism and make greater effort in the dissemination of such materials.

3. NEA and NEA affiliates should develop guidelines for the composition of negotiation committees and the issues that should be addressed in collective bargaining agreements.

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4. NEA and NEA affiliates should actively promote the development of Employment Affirmative Action Plans and Educational Program Affirmative Action Plans.

5. NEA affiliates should move toward the development of Employment Affirmative Action Plans as quickly as possible.

6. NEA should actively seek to influence the development of pre-service education programs that provide teachers with greater understanding of the nature of racism-sexism, and that improve their skills in eliminating racism and sexism in the classroom.

7. NEA should seek greater reinforcement of anti-discrimination legislation covering educational agencies and institutions.

Recommendations Regarding Related Issues

1. Public education programs regarding nutritional needs of prospective mothers must be carried out through various social and community agencies.

2. National support must be provided for the development of child care centers and early childhood educational programs.

3. Adequate child care assistance and retraining programs must be developed to assist welfare recipients in preparing for and obtaining employment.

4. Lower income families should be provided assistance for free school lunch programs and child health care programs.

5. Programs for parent education should be expanded which would assist parents in working with their own children.

6. Public education efforts should be focused on informing the general community of the problems of sexism and racism in schools and in our society.

FOOTNOTE

[1] Lenore Weitzman and Diane Rizzo, *Images of Males and Females in Elementary School Textbooks.* Washington: Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.

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EDUCATIONAL NEGLECT IN THE EDUCATION OF AMERICAN INDIANS

Introduction

Reports of neglect in the education of American Indian children have persisted ever since the first federal involvement in this area over 170 years ago. Stories continue to abound about high dropout rates, alcoholism among young people, excessive use of corporal punishment and suspensions, misuse of Indian funds by local, state, and federal officials, lack of representation of Indians on boards of education and on teaching and administrative staffs, and malicious intent and discrimination in provision of educational services in public and private schools serving Indian students.

As part of continuing efforts of the National Education Association to improve the quality of education in all parts of the nation, and in response to the efforts of NEA President Jim Harris to bring national attention to educational neglect in the nation's schools, neglect in the education of American Indians was selected as one of the topics for NEA's 1974-75 National Project on Educational Neglect. The state of Arizona, at the invitation of the Arizona Education Association, was selected as a target for on-site visits to evaluate educational neglect in Indian education.

The on-site visitations and interviews in the joint NEA-AEA study were conducted during the week of January 4-11 1975. In addition to the team itself, approximately 80 persons, mostly Indians, participated, including teachers, teacher aides, parents, school administrators, tribal officials, members of parent advisory committees, students, AEA leaders, the Director of Indian Education in the Arizona Department of Education, and Indian members of boards of education in public schools located on Indian reservations in Arizona.

Members of the Task Force on Educational Neglect selected to conduct the on-site visitations accepted the following as primary guidelines in our own activities:

1. To diligently seek out the truth about educational neglect of Indian students in the state of Arizona, whether favorable or unfavorable to any special interests or to our own predisposition.

2. To apply our own best thinking, based on the requests and advice of Indian people, toward the development of recommendations for action which could, if implemented, be of material assistance in solution of problems and improvement of educational opportunity for Indian children.

3. To commit ourselves to see to it that actions are implemented so that educational neglect of Indian children in Arizona and across the nation can finally become a thing of the past.

Sites visited by members of the Task Force during the week-long study included the following:

Sells, Arizona (Indian Oasis District, Papago Reservation)
Sacaton and Coolidge, Arizona (Gila River Indian Reservation)
Phoenix, Arizona (Arizona Education Association and Arizona State Department of Education
Tuba City, Arizona (Navajo Reservation)
Kayenta, Arizona (Navajo Reservation)
Tsaile, Arizona (Navajo Community College)
Chinle, Arizona (Navajo Reservation)
Gallup, New Mexico
Fort Defiance, Arizona (Window Rock School District, Navajo Reservation)
Second Mesa, Arizona (Hopi Reservation)

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Procedures for the study included open meetings with groups, interviews with individuals, observation, and review of official documents and previous reports relevant to the purposes of the Task Force.

The Task Force recognizes that any efforts during a one-week period of visitations will be inadequate to bring together the thinking of the 17 separate reservations in Arizona and the 114,487 Indians living on reservations covering 19,646,495 acres in the state nor the additional thousands of Indians living outside reservations within the state. The Task Force did agree, however, that the on-site visits were extremely useful both in providing the opportunity for face-to-face contact and in obtaining broader perception of the extent of educational neglect of Indian children in Arizona.

If an acceptable definition of educational neglect can be found in the presence of conditions which would be intolerable in any other community than those visited by the Task Force, then the Task Force was able to identify educational neglect. In the pages that follow, the reader is asked to judge the quality of the information provided to the Task Force and to exercise whatever influence can be brought to bear to change those conditions that need to be changed. Despite increased community involvement in many reservation schools and improved levels of services, perhaps the only ultimately effective solution can be found in a rising public rage that such conditions can exist at all.

Members of the Task Force and Participants in On-Site Visitations

Janet Beauchamp, Career Education Consultant, Phoenix
Mike Bernal, UniServ Director, Tucson
Vickie Burton, student, Roosevelt District, Phoenix
William Hodge, UniServ Director, Flagstaff
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POPULATION AND ACREAGE OF ARIZONA INDIAN RESERVATIONS

RESERVATION	CLASSIFICATION	POPULATION	ACREAGE
Ak-Chin	Papago	266	21,840
Camp Verde	Yavapai-Apache	346	640
Cocopah	Cocopah	360	1,411
Colorado River	Mohave-Chemehuevi	1,581	268,691
Fort Apache	Apache	7,200	1,664,972
Fort McDowell	Yavapai	340	24,680
Gila River	Pima-Maricopa	8,331	371,933
Havasupai	Havasupai	363	3,077
Hopi	Hopi	6,567	2,472,254
Hualapai	Hualapai	870	993,173
Kaibab-Paiute	Paiute	153	120,413
Navajo	Navajo	71,396	8,969,248
Papago	Papago	8,708	2,855,874
Payson	Tonto Apache	65	85
Salt River	Pima-Maricopa	2,750	49,294
San Carlos	Apache	5,097	1,827,501
Yavapai-Prescott	Yavapai	94	1,409
		114,487	19,646,495

Note: The figures were supplied through the courtesy of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and do not include the thousands of off-reservation members of tribes.

The Navajo population is for Arizona only.

ARIZONA COMMISSION OF INDIAN AFFAIRS. Annual Report, 1973-74.

Let's send a task force down from Washington
and check out the complaints.
The Indians are unhappy
and they're putting on the paint.
They say their treatment is not fair,
and they blame the BIA,
But you know you can't believe a single
word the redskins say.
It's the very same old problem that we had
two years ago,
They want more programs started,
and their funds are getting low.
We'll go down and ask some questions,
and just stand around a while,
Then we'll make out our reports
that we can later file–
But it's got to be kept secret
No one should know that we're there
And all you have to do is tell them what
they want to hear.
Let's send a task force down from Washington
and check out the complaints
The Indians are unhappy
but is there a time when they ain't

–author unknown

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COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

The Navajos have a phrase for the schools their children are required to attend—

Bilagaane Biolta'

—which means, in one of several possible translations, "Little White Man's School"

The name epitomizes the problem.

Visible observation and judgments based on reports to the Task Force during the on-site visits convinced us that effective control of their own school systems by Indian parents will provide the only immediate and long-range solution to problems of Indian children in relating to and achieving in the schools. One Navajo school board member pointed out that control should not be viewed as an end in itself, but as a means to bringing about the conditions that would benefit the children.

In some districts visited by the Task Force, Indian control is only an idea for the future. Dissatisfaction and discouragement with the schools means lack of participation in PTA meetings, when they are called, in elections, and in programs sponsored for parents by the school or by other groups. We were repeatedly warned that lack of participation did not mean lack of interest, and we observed personally the high interest shown in districts where parents felt they had the opportunity to have their wishes heard.

Indian control, though improving in some areas, still does not exist. In Fort Defiance, a Navajo chapter officer pointed out that "If you're not responsible for decisions on money, you don't control education. As long as there is a feeling of distrust of the Indian people by those who control the finances we won't have control." The Task Force agrees, and points to the mess created by past state diversion of Indian money and by changes in allocations under Johnson-O'Malley; school administrators repeatedly warned that districts are going bankrupt, and unless something happens to change the situation quickly, there won't be a public school system on the reservation in two to five years. The Indians will have to turn the schools back to the whites and beg once again to be appointed to advisory committees for white controlled schools.

Parents complained that they have difficulty understanding curriculum changes, such as new math, and that students can't go to the parents for help, thereby widening the gap between parent and child and making the teaching of traditional values more difficult. Parents expressed the desire for the schools to provide continuing and special instruction at the local areas on course content and subjects.

The state has only begun to provide training for Indian school boards, having done so for only four districts to date, even though 86% of the major impact districts on reservations in Arizona now have Indians as members of school boards. Some groups, like the Hopis, have traditionally had little input into the operation of their schools, especially where BIA schools have predominated, but it was the feeling of the Task Force that that tradition is changing, based on information that the tribe is now interested in bringing parents into the schools and particularly in building their own high school so that their children can attend schools on the reservation without being damaged in the peripheral schools.*

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*A public school system near a reservation that has contracted with the BIA to provide educational services to reservation children and youth.

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The Task Force heard that the Hopis want redistribution of federal authority all the way down to the local level, and that they now want federal money so that they can develop their own educational specifications for their own local schools with direct input from local people, although they may be having trouble with the BIA. In the case of the Hopis, both centralized schools and assignment of students to peripheral boarding schools stand in the way of cultural traditions. Since each of the Hopi villages is autonomous, locally-controlled, community-based schools could be developed to serve the varying needs and customs of each community.

Many Indian tribes appoint or elect their own Education Committee to serve as a buffer in dealing with the schools, but increasingly there is a trend to expand involvement. Among the 100 Navajo Chapters, several now have their own local education committees in addition to the Tribal Education Committee which meets in Window Rock, and it seemed clear to the Task Force that other local Chapters would soon follow suit.

Taking part in school affairs can be difficult for Indian parents. Weather (a major factor on the reservation), bad roads, lack of transportation, the need to care for children or livestock all interfere in getting to the school, which is too often viewed as hostile territory in any case.

In some cases, established school boards have opposed the establishment of parent advisory councils, asserting that only the Board has legal authority for education. In Window Rock, the Task Force met with members of the Parent Committee, which no longer is advisory, and which exercises direct control over federal programs. Given the lack of Indian participation in school boards off the reservation, such provisions with respect to allocations of federal funds are necessary to protect the rights of Indian parents and students in such districts. The new JOM guidelines provide that Parent Advisory Committees have veto power over Board uses of JOM money, but such authority should be extended to other Title programs, where the committees remain advisory.

Since tribal experiences and cultural orientation of many Indian groups conflict with "American" concepts of elections, authority, etc., care should be taken that arbitrary solutions not be applied from outside. Individuals and tribal groups often choose not to participate for a number of reasons, all legitimate and which should be honored, including the difficulty and expense of traveling to the polls or to meetings, resistance to recognizing the "white man's" law, the fact that there may be little difference in the eyes of the parent between candidates or issues, the feeling that participation does not make any difference anyway, reliance on authority (whether that of education or position), the fact that elections require individual rather than group expression, rejection of the election process itself and/or the candidates, tribal and intertribal differences; and the fact that schools still are viewed as being something for the white man.

THE STUDENTS

Those who have had the opportunity to work with Indians, if they are observant and at all sensitive, know that, on their own, Indian children are lively imaginative, witty, curious, energetic, and exciting. But, too often, something happens in school.

The national dropout rate for all students is approximately 25%. Last year the national average for dropouts among Indian students was around 44%. The Task Force heard reports that in Arizona, while the state average dropout rate for all students was

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23%, slightly better than than the national average, approximately 60% of Indian students were leaving Arizona schools before graduation. To look at the problem another way, about 20% of all students nationally entering first grade now go on to complete college, but despite efforts of recent years, only about 5% of Indian students do so. With special efforts, the Hopis have reportedly reduced their dropout rates to 20%, considerably better than the national average, and the Navajos to 30%.

The degree to which students were having problems seemed to be related to the degree of Indian control present within the schools. Alcoholism and, more recently, drug abuse were reported heaviest among students attending schools outside the reservation. In some cases, the feeling was expressed that teachers find it hard to teach Indians. Peer groups exert great pressure. Students who raise their hands sometimes find themselves made fun of by others. Students who attend school in other areas and "know to much" sometimes are snubbed, although patterns seem to have been reversed in some schools where cultural awareness programs have brought a greater feeling of belonging to the children.

There are substantial numbers of Indian students in Arizona schools. Estimates ranged from 27,000 to 60 000, depending on the definition of who is Indian. There are presently (1973-74) 20,756 Indian students eligible for Johnson O'Malley assistance, with 16,081 in elementary (K-8) and 4,675 in high school (9-12).

The general lack of Indian teachers has a major effect on student perceptions of the schools. The Arizona Department of Education reported 27,012 Indian students in its December, 1973, survey, 5.54% of the total pupils in the state, but only 121 Indian teachers, 0.54% of the total. Another way to look at this problem would be to compare the average pupil-teacher ratio for all students in Arizona for that year (21.8 to 1) to the average pupil-teacher ratio for Indian students as against Indian teachers (223.2 to 1), for Spanish surname (102 to 1), for Black (42.1 to 1), for Asian American (28 to 1), and for Anglos (16.5 to 1) to understand the ethnic flavor in the state as it affects Indians in the schools. Despite the apparently widely held belief that conditions have changed, the Task Force saw no school in which Indian teachers were in the majority, and in most of the schools visited there were no more than one, two, or three Indian teachers working with children in the schools.

Comments were heard repeatedly that the schools were not challenging enough. One Papago parent expressed the belief that somewhere someone has made a policy that schools should not be challenging for Indian students. A Pima parent observed that the teachers don't "try to bring the kids up, if the students don't do anything, they are left alone."

Although corporal punishment has been officially abolished in BIA schools, with the adoption of the Indian Student Bill of Rights, the Task Force heard reports of continuing use of swatting in peripheral schools, but it no longer seems to be as significant where Indian control has been established. Dropouts were another question.

If the dropout rate can be viewed as a measure of educational neglect resulting from the failure of the school to adapt to the needs of the students, such neglect is rampant in many schools. In Tuba City, we were told the dropout rate was very low, but charges were later made that the system follows a practice of indefinite suspensions, pending conferences with the parent(s) and student at the school, for skipping or for unexcused absence. The Task Force was informed that there is little or no advance warning, that notes are sent home with the students written in English, not Navajo, and that there is little or no followup when students do not return. Sometimes, we were told, students under the compulsory attendance age of 16 are out of school permanently as a result of this practice.

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Parents and older people often expressed confusion and concern over what the schools were doing with their children. The Task Force was told that many students no longer listen to their Mom and Dad, that they go their own way. The Community Center in one system was criticized because it "teaches bad things, the kids shouldn't have dancing or shows" and that it was breaking down the traditional cultural and familial relationships. In some areas, help is needed to deal with fights between Indian and non-Indian students and between Indian students of different tribes.

Parents told the Task Force that there are many broken homes on the reservation because of divorce, death, and alcoholism, and expressed the need for services all over the reservation, not only in the major towns.

Hopi parents told of difficulties with their children in summertime, after returning from boarding facilities in the peripheral districts, and their anxiety to build their own high school so that they could get the children back home to be together, to re-establish social control, and to permit the children to take part in the complex and important initiations into the clans and societies, which serve the important function of preparing young people for manhood and womanhood in an intricately interwoven society which has survived for hundreds of years. To maintain tradition, the Hopis cannot afford to keep sending their children away to lose values of respect and honesty which they would otherwise learn from their elders. One Hopi parent, expressing his frustration with conditions, said that, "The school has to go to the children, there has to be some interest, even if we have to bribe the kids."

Absenteeism is high on many of the reservations, averaging as high as 8-10% per day. Whether it arises from dissatisfaction, cultural conflict, or other causes, was a moot issue as the Task Force listened to testimony relating to the problems of bad roads, buses not always on time, lack of transportation whenever there was rain or the snow was melting, cold and hunger, and long hours getting to and from an often unfriendly school. As a means of developing understanding, teachers in some schools are now being required to get up early in the morning with the children and ride as much as 60 miles each way before and after school.

Despite the problems in getting to school, the Task Force heard of many individual stories of heroic effort—one high school track champion who developed his legs running 12 miles from his home to the bus stop each day, parents driving or carrying their children on horseback 10 to 15 miles to a bus stop so they would not have to go to boarding school, students coming to school half dirty, in rags, because they want to learn.

TEACHERS

With rare exceptions, teachers of Indian students, even in schools with large Indian populations, whether BIA, public, or private schools, are non-Indians, mostly Anglos (non-minority whites).

The Task Force heard testimony that Sacaton Public School, which serves about 900 Pima students, has only 3 or 4 Indian teachers out of about 40. In 1972-73, there were none. Coolidge, a peripheral district serving nearly 300 Pima students, has no Indians on the teaching staff nor on the school board and requires that teachers be residents of the school district. Tuba City, a district moving toward Indian control, has now about 20 Indian teachers among 140. Kayenta, which recently employed its first Indian superintendent, was reported to have 3 Indian teachers.

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Many districts are getting around certification laws which help to exclude employment of Indian teachers by hiring Indian parents as paraprofessionals and teacher aides. Other programs funded outside the school provide the opportunity for contact with Indian counselors, cultural awareness teachers, and social workers.

Problems of teachers on reservations are great, and turnover is high. Salaries are low, far lower than in the urban districts which also offer more attractive social, recreational, and educational opportunities. Housing must be provided by the district and is often not up to par with urban standards. Non-Indian, and sometimes Indian, teachers are often ill-prepared for the change in life styles and cultures when they move to the reservation schools. Low pay, inadequate teaching materials, cultural conflicts, social uncertainties, and isolation conspire to drive out many who come to the reservation with high ideals, and some of those who stay have been disillusioned to the point that their relationships with students are counterproductive, although there are good and committed teachers of all ages. As one Navajo mother put it, "Some of the teachers have been here too long and need something new surrounding them."

Attempts to provide training for teachers have apparently had varied results. In one district, parents felt teachers were afraid to participate because of fear of the community. In many cases, parents felt that teachers are not reinforcing and capitalizing on the abilities of students, that teachers cut down on the content being given to Indian students, although there were exceptions. Parents in Kayenta felt that it takes about a year for a new teacher to learn to teach Indian children, but by that time all of the pressures have accumulated so that most move elsewhere.

Parents felt that teachers too often come to the reservation convinced that their way is right, that they are, in effect, bringing civilization to the Indians, without recognizing the beauty of the life styles and the values of Indian culture. One strategy reported to the Task Force in an Indian-controlled district was that new teachers be required as part of their orientation to get up early in the morning, without breakfast, ride miles to school on the buses with the students, go through the school day and return again on the buses, finally getting home well after dark.

Fort Defiance reported offering courses to upgrade teachers, and some state university programs are being formulated to develop feeder programs for Indian teachers and to train non-Indian interns on the reservations. Unfortunately, most such programs are set up for the biggest and most visible communities, the Navajo and Hopi reservations, and smaller tribal groups do not get the benefit of teachers trained in their own local cultures, which can be and often are substantially different.

Most teachers no longer punish Indian children for speaking their own language in school, but disapproval can be a strong weapon. Parents in several communities did complain that teachers seldom left the school campus to learn about the community but also admitted that parents themselves seldom visit classes. One Navajo mother told us the story of her daughter, who had done all the family cooking and cleaning of the hogan from an early age, but received failing grades in home economics. Since reservation cooking was substantially different from the "modern" ways being taught in the class, the mother requested an opportunity to visit the class to see what was different, but was refused by the teacher.

COUNSELING

Need for counseling services continue for reservation children and adults, particularly in those areas where schools are least responsive to Indian needs and where Indian control has not yet developed. The presence of Indian counselors is extremely rare, with the exception of special counselors and social workers employed in programs

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outside the schools in alcohol and drug abuse programs, social welfare programs and such specialized programs as Educational Talent Search, designed to identify and assist potentially successful Indian students in entering college. One notable program the Task Force learned about was the Gila River Native American Program, which supports in a Title III program 17 native American counselors and counselor aides. The Task Force was also told that in Sells (Indian Oasis) there was no Papago counselor, but that there were counselor aides funded under ESEA Title I.

Closer relationships between teachers of Indian students and counselors are badly needed, especially where the counselors function in programs operating outside the regular school system.

The lack of Indian participation in some districts exacerbates the problems. The Task Force heard that in Coolidge, a district serving a majority of non Indian students, the Pima tribe had sanctioned and requested sex education and family planning courses, but were told by school administrators that such programs would violate state laws. The parents were left with the understanding that the superintendent was afraid of white reaction if such needed programs were offered to students.

ADMINISTRATORS

The gradual movement toward Indian control in predominantly Indian districts has brought initial moves toward hiring Indian school administrators as superintendents and central administration staff, notably in Kayenta, Chinle, and Fort Defiance, among the schools visited by the Task Force. New accountability has also brought changes in superintendencies in recent months and years in several other districts in Arizona, a move not necessarily for the worst.

One white superintendent, facing nonrenewal of his contract this year, allegedly responded to tribal requests for courses in Indian culture to be provided to teachers in his district by saying that it was up to the teachers to request the courses, not up to him to initiate them.

Remnants of past practice, where schools were designed to protect the non-Indian citizens of the town in which they were located, are persistent, both because of the time lag in bringing about change and by the heritage of a paternalistic, informal method of funding schools from the state level in past years that did not encourage supplemental programs or activities designed to extend the range of school services.

The Task Force was informed of experiments in two districts—Keams Canyon and Tuba City—where the BIA and the public schools have amalgamated, with two principals operating in the same building, the BIA principal responsible for maintenance and noninstructional services, the public school principal in charge of instructional activity. One dramatically visible result in Tuba City was the presence of an unusually attractive new high school built at a cost variously estimated from nine to ten million dollars, largely with funds provided by the BIA. Despite the obvious excellence of the school plant and the presence of a highly professional cultural awareness-center on the school campus, the Task Force heard criticisms that the school may serve the non-Indian townspeople best and that it was not designed for people out on the reservation. The Task Force heard of suspensions for unexcused absence, of students riding the bus to school, showing up on attendance rolls, and then disappearing for the day, of a continuing scarcity of Indian teachers, of an almost complete lack of opportunity for students to obtain bilingual instruction in Navajo as a second language classes. With many of the Indian students required to be transported for long distances, the Task Force members could not help wondering why the decision was not made to

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use the same amount of money to build three or four new high schools which would serve smaller student bodies and at the same time bring education closer to the students on the reservation.

The Task Force was told that "the Navajo likes to get first-hand information from the top man," and that it is customary that people wait for the person who is educated to make the first move. Inasmuch as many of the people still view the school as "the little white man's school," reluctance to attend and participate in school board meetings, PTA, and other school activities still pervades. Administrators in one district made a decision early this year to attend chapter meetings (the Navajo Tribe is divided into 100 chapters, equivalent to villages with their own local officers), but had not managed to do so thus far. The superintendent felt that it was not worth his time to go to meetings where people only have confrontations, and that the people should come to him. The parents in this district questioned whether the superintendent could effectively function with the people so that they could get to know him, trust him, and be able to talk with him. There was less concern about teacher participation in chapter meetings, although there was interest, but there was a feeling among parents that communications should be initiated by the administration.

With the kinds of pressures building on school administrators, especially the financial quagmires that have developed through no fault of their own, it is not totally surprising that administrators in these districts find it difficult to attend adequately to the concerns of the community, although the Task Force did hear glowing reports of efforts of chief administrators in Chinle and Fort Defiance to do so. Part of the success of administrators in districts visited by the Task Force appears to be related to their ability to share authority and to be responsive to local Indian people. In Fort Defiance, the Board of Education has agreed that the Parent Advisory Committee elected at the chapter levels to relate to the various federal programs probably knows more about the federal programs than they do, and so the superintendeent and the Board defer to the Parent Committee for decisions on policy in these areas—the word "Advisory" is inoperative.

As one superintendent put it, "Control is now being gotten by the Navajos. The carpetbaggers won't last long."

CURRICULUM

A common mistake made by many non-Indians is the assumption that learning did not take place until the white man brought schools and "civilization." In practice, ancient tribal cultures were often complex and ritualistic, with acculturation and orientation of young people to tribal life an important educational function. Learning activities were developed around group life and group needs. Initiation ceremonies of the Hopis were sophisticated and complex and took place over a period of years. Among the Papagos the amassing of wealth was not an objective in the old days, for example; and the sharing of cactus apples was common when one person had a surplus and others had need. The Navajos and other tribes centered much attention on the relationship of the individual to the life-giving land and to the history of the tribe.

The Task Force heard testimony that today in Sells there is no planned curriculum, no established sequence of courses, that teachers order the textbooks they want from salesmen. Other groups, notably in Chinle and Fort Defiance, are making significant attempts to establish curriculum related to Indian life and culture, with beginning efforts to teach the old crafts and the old ways as a legitimate part of the learning experience of every child.

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Many parents feel the schools are operated the same way as in the big cities with curriculum and textbooks developed for white middle-class Anglos, for non-Indians, that the mold is already there before the child arrives at the school, with no opportunity for development of self-concept, identity communication, or correlation of learning.

One Kayenta mother complained that the school has no programs to meet the special needs of the handicapped, dropouts, and others with physiological and emotional needs, and that previous school administrations felt that it was not the responsibility of the public school to provide for people unable to fit the mold. Without any question, the school was not geared in the past to help Indian students socially, academically, or financially, and parents did not have adequate information to get students with special disabilities into programs which might have helped.

The state of Arizona has mandated that special education programs be provided in all public schools as of January 1, 1976, and districts are now moving to meet the requirements. Despite some feeling that the underlying motivation for the legislation was to retrack and resegregate minority children in districts such as Phoenix and Tucson (facing desegregation), these programs will, at least, bring services that have never been provided before. Reportedly, however, the legislation includes "culturally and emotionally deprived" youngsters and those whose achievement ranges two or more years below their chronological age expectations on achievement test scores. If this is true major efforts will be needed to avoid a virtually total segregation of Indian children in districts which in the past have been less than eager to provide responsive educational offerings.

Robert Roessel, the outspoken and highly dedicated superintendent in Chinle, says that treatment of Indian students has represented nothing less than the worst in hypocrisy and colonialism, and that there remains gross neglect across the state in both physical facilities and curriculum. He points out that the Navajo Tribe is developing its own curriculum standards and that "we're winning the battle of showing Indian culture should be taught although we still have to get some fool. . .with a certificate rather than a Navajo."

The disparity between education of Indian students and that of others in the state is both heart-rending and shocking. One Fort Defiance parent asked the Task Force, "Traditional education has been here for 105 years. Why is it so hard for us to master it like other people?"

One answer lies in the history of Indian education. Under the BIA, parents gave all responsibility to the school, the usual purpose for which was acculturation into Anglo culture and assimilation. When public schools arrived, parents still felt the same, that what is important is not in school, that there is still no communication between parents and teachers, that teachers still feel that what they learned elsewhere is important here. They asked again and again, "How can we bring Indian education into the classroom so that learnings can be appropriate for here?"

The Navajo Education Committee has identified four crucial areas for educational development:

1. Parent involvement
2. Curriculum
3. Philosophy
4. Communication and language improvement

The Task Force agrees.

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The Task Force is especially concerned about the tendency of special education and supplemental programs to segregate and track students of varying experiences and abilities, that textbooks and learning materials rarely reflect the realities of Indian life in the United States, and that traditional educational practices are highly aggressive, individualistic, and competitive in ways destructive of native American life styles and values. The Task Force recognized the continuing need for development of outstanding innovative programs for the education of disadvantaged children, bilingual and bicultural curriculum, and therapeutic programs designed to deal with the emotional, social, and identity problems of Indian youth.

LANGUAGE

The Task Force heard more expressions of concern about the teaching of language, whether English or Indian than any other curriculum issue. Students told of being told not to talk Navajo in grade school because "it isn't polite." Parents told of physical punishment in older times for speaking an Indian language in boarding school Others recited instances of rewards being given for not speaking Indian.

Most Indian languages have historically been transmitted orally, but recent efforts to develop linguistic alphabets are becoming more popular among Indian leaders, with notable new alphabets being developed with the Hoopas tribe in California and recently with the Papagos in Arizona, although earlier efforts by bible companies and missionaries were also attempted. The Hopis, who have placed great emphasis on the learning of English in school have felt that their language was too difficult to be transcribed in a written alphabet, but there may be new interest arising as a result of early success by other Indian groups. The Navajos have had a written language for some time, and, possibly for this reason, as well as greater parent participation in school affairs, may be further ahead in identifying needs with respect to Navajo instruction in the schools.

Native history, music, religion, and culture are extremely important in the education of Indian children, and native languages are the most important vehicle for teaching concepts in those areas. Indian students need more than the Three R's, we were told, they need to have the chance to converse with teachers in their own language.

Many adults who learned Pima or Papago or Hopi or Navajo before they learned English felt that success in English was the only way success in life could be achieved, especially where that success meant the ability to deal on the white man's terms. Consequently, large numbers of young people were not taught their own languages in their homes, and, given the universal scarcity of Indian teachers, were not likely to find many experiences in those languages in school, especially where those languages have been discouraged.

Navajo parents were especially insistent on the need for bilingual experiences throughout school as well as the teaching of Navajo as a second language for those Indian youngsters who had little or no background in Navajo. While they also supported the teaching of English as a second language, provided bilingual/bicultural approaches were not sacrificed, they told of little children coming to school for the first time unable to speak or understand the teacher, ultimately learning only rudimentary English and completely inadequate Navajo. These parents felt that it was entirely possible for youngsters to gain skills in both languages, and that shortcuts should not be permitted if children are to grow up understanding their own culture and at the same time getting along well in the world that is.

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In many Indian tribes, a kind of generation gap exists along language lines. The old people still speak the old language and are impatient with their children, now parents, who do not, and with the young people, who are anxious to learn the old language but who learn slang versions. One high school senior in Tuba City told how her mother spoke English at home, had Anglo friends, but now wants her to learn Navajo.

Some old people are wary of the teaching of languages and cultures in the schools, and feel that they do not want non Indians interpreting the language and the religion in order that they not be lost. The example was given of the Hopis' attempts to manufacture and sell their fine Kachina dolls, sacred to their religion, only to see white manufacturers set up assembly line production to sell counterfeits. They think the same thing can happen if the language, culture, and religious customs are relegated to the schools, and that these things should be kept in the homes.

Fortunately, there are efforts to retain the old Indian literature and songs before they are finally lost, and Indian poetry is a popular activity in some schools. Parents by and large insisted that they wanted both proper English and proper Indian taught to their children.

Outstanding attempts to retain the old language and stories are being made at Navajo Community College, which has become a major publishing source for original material. Currently, attempts are being made to develop a dictionary to assist in defining the Navajo language, one in which the complex sounds can mean a number of different things.

Kayenta administrators indicated their hope to develop within the next five years a completely coordinated bilingual/bicultural program with children working with both languages simultaneously. They envision at least three classrooms with English dominant in one end of the room, Navajo in the other. There are difficulties, however, over and above obtaining qualified teachers. A recent proposal under Title VII was made to train bilingual teachers, but funding was not available.

CULTURE

The Task Force heard testimony that indicated that stages of cultural awareness are far different on different reservations.

In the case of the Papagos, we were told that many of the children do not even know that they are Indian, that at least 30 to 40% of students in the schools do not speak Papago, and that moves are only beginning now to bring cultural awareness to young people. The "Cultural Awareness Program for Papago" was funded this year for only $23,609, but enough to hire Joe Enos, a former senior at the University of Arizona. Working with the schools, he teaches cultural awareness classes, is collecting stories and information from the old people, has developed a Papago flag, and is helping people understand the names and history of the eleven Papago districts. With a severe shortage of textbooks and printed materials on Indians, let alone in the Papago language, he is hopeful that recent tribal approval of a Papago alphabet will provide a basis for developing further understanding. In all of the sites visited by the Task Force, the USOE decision to regionalize bilingual materials centers under Title VII has severely hampered existing materials development programs.

In Tuba City, the Task Force heard testimony that there was no planned cultural awareness program as part of the regular school curriculum, and some parents felt that teachers were afraid to teach cultural awareness because of fear of contradicting or

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offending Indian students. In Kayenta and Fort Defiance, materials development programs have been blocked by the regionalization of Title VII, and there is fear that what is generated locally will be given to people in other areas and local interest will be depleted.

Things taught in school are often in direct conflict with things taught by parents, the Task Force was told; and the disparity widens as children grow up, with the resulting dropouts, absenteeism, and alcoholism—and people wonder why.

In the case of the Hopis, the Task Force was told that the history of the schools influenced the ways they were perceived. After the original mission schools were established over a hundred years ago, the Indian Service came in and set up schools to get children to learn things the "American" way. Until recent years, the primary emphasis of school has been on indoctrination and parents see the school as the place where you learn white men's things. Many parents view success in life as being based on a good English foundation. The parents, we were told hold respect for educators on the basis of their education and the position they hold, and will not usually question what is happening in school, even if they do not like the teachers. They believe that traditional things should not be taught in school because the school is the white man's thing, and the traditional things will be lost if they are given away.

Navajo parents talked of encouraging the children to know both ways and to pick the best of each. Many old ways are now forgotten, they feel, but it is appropriate for the school to do what it can to restore them in the minds of the young people.

While most students are proud of their cultures, we were told of students who would not dance their tribal dances in the school even though they would participate in the dances of other tribes. We were told that some students, perhaps many, have been ashamed to wear the Navajo knot, to dress or speak Navajo, and that Hopis were ashamed to be unable to speak English well in dealing with professional people.

Language, history, music, religion, and culture are all vitally important in the education of Indian children, but, in addition to these, most teachers reportedly also do not understand problems of young people with respect to individual aggressiveness, competition, and activities requiring the individual to stand out from the group. Several individuals expressed concern that learning and discipline be based as much as possible on group values.

The low visibility of militant activity should not be misleading with respect to the desire of young people to know and participate in their Indian heritage. Several persons suggested that people joined groups like the American Indian Movement (AIM) because they had lost part of their Indian heritage and wanted to regain it; while on the reservation the people had their heritage yet and could be secure in it. Nonetheless, the desire for maintaining and preserving the traditional ways is no less strong in what may appear to be the absence of militant activity.

ACCREDITATION AND CERTIFICATION

Problems relating to teacher certification and institutional accreditation are unique in public school systems on Indian reservations. Because of the general lack of certified teachers who speak Indian languages or who are closely familiar with Indian cultural values, a dire state of educational neglect persists.

Many groups have tried to remedy the problems of Indian children in unfamiliar settings by bringing in Indian consultants, teacher aides, and paraprofessionals, but

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such devices either skirt the law or disguise the underlying problem of schools and educational practices which are not and never were designed to serve the needs of Indian children. The employment of bilingual aides to work in classes under the supervision of white teachers is the most common approach, but, as Robert Roessel at Chinle says, "We can fudge a little bit and get them in, but that's not solving the real problem."

Part of the problem lies in the fact that non-Indian accreditors are required to apply rules developed essentially for non-Indian schools. There can be little argument that traditional teacher education programs which train for traditional educational settings do not necessarily provide learnings which will help teachers cope with existing situations in Indian schools. The process of professionalization itself is a problem; even with the extensive use of teacher aides, some schools have found that professionally developed aides, let alone teachers and administrators, do not always relate well in ways that local, grass-roots-type, "uneducated" people can.

Training programs for teacher interns are conducted in several university programs in Arizona, but usually either on the Navajo or Hopi reservations. As a result, graduates of these programs who teach on other reservations find that they are not necessarily well grounded in differing value systems. Such programs should be decentralized so that more tribes take part.

The North Central Association accreditors may be more sensitive to Indian needs than state accrediting officials in Arizona. We were informed that North Central is willing to approve Indian teachers without regular teaching certificates, but that there is a lack of positive influence at the state level with regard to loosening the present requirements. Navajo Community College, in its commendable efforts to develop programs relevant to and controlled by Indians, has been accredited, the Task Force was told, by the North Central Association, but again not by the state of Arizona. Teacher associations, which have fought long and hard to improve certification standards across the nation, will have to look hard at our traditional positions on certification to determine ways in which present standards can be modified so that persons with qualifications to teach Indian students can have the opportunity.

A similar problem relates to that of obtaining substitute teachers; because of the isolation of the reservation, substitutes who qualify under state certification requirements are simply not available in most cases. While persons with certification can be relatively easily found to substitute in urban school districts, such certification requirements may be inappropriate on the reservation.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Indian problems related to higher education were summarized as follows for the Task Force:

1. The lack of Indian teachers and relevant curriculum in the public schools is matched in the higher education institutions of the state, although specialized programs in several of the universities are being developed.

2. Indian students who enter college in Arizona most often either drop out within a relatively short time or, if degree programs are completed, find employment in areas other than the reservation.

3. There are inadequate counseling and guidance programs for Indian students on college campuses in Arizona.

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4. Financial problems and lack of adequate supportive service for Indian students contribute to problems of Indian students.

5. Rigid degree and certification requirements do not account for either student or tribal needs in some circumstances.

6. Educational neglect in elementary and secondary schools serving Indian students contributes to difficulties faced by Indian youngsters entering higher education programs.

Since entrance to college determines ultimately the availability on the reservations of professionals, including doctors, lawyers, and others, who are competent and knowledgeable of Indian ways, traditional approaches in establishing entrance requirements and academic prerequisites are providing a disservice to Indian needs. Discriminatory devices such as the SAT, ACT, and other college entrance examinations should be discarded, especially in use with Indian students, in any institution of higher education receiving support from the state or federal government because of their tendency to limit access to higher education and professional employment for young people who need more and better services rather than being shut out.

The Navajo Community College in Tsaile, established by act of Congress in 1971, and funded by grants from federal and private sources, was a highlight for Task Force members among the sites visited. The College, originally begun in 1969, charges no tuition for Indian students, has an open admissions policy (with review of prospective candidates by an academic standards board), provides food and clothing for resident students, and is charged by the State Board of Regents to emphasize bilingual/bicultural education. Attempting to teach academically in two languages, the College has four beginning classes in Navajo and an active Navajo and Indian Studies Department, with a number of excellent publications on Indian history and culture having been issued by the Navajo Community College Press.

Yazzie Begay, one of the original founders of the college, expressed its philosophy in stating, "We are not attempting to build walls through the establishment of this College. We are trying to knock walls down. We only want what millions of other Americans already enjoy, and that is our own college designed to serve our own needs."

The problem of inflexible state accreditation requirements with respect to the certification of Indian teachers is pointedly exemplified by the fact that NCC is accredited by the North Central Association, but not by the state of Arizona.

CAREER EDUCATION

The lack of available employment on many reservations, especially for young people, helps to maintain the feeling that schools are not doing the job. Indians living on reservations are acutely aware of cultural disorientation, unemployment, and alcoholism among those who have left for the cities.

Unfortunately, career education for Indian students has almost always either been lacking or inappropriate in preparing young Indian people for survival either on the reservation or in non-reservation settings.

The Task Force heard of one student sent to Sacramento for extensive training in electronics, but who could find no jobs in electronics on returning to the reservation. Too often an "either-or" choice is presented; if an Indian student wishes to remain on

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the reservation, the education received in the school is almost totally unsuitable; if the student seeks advanced education or professional opportunities, it is all too often at the cost of "Indian-ness" and return to the reservation is virtually impossible.

Parents told the Task Force that they want students to "learn our own way" so that they can survive if they return to the reservation from outside. They want Indian crafts, Indian weaving, Indian home economics, leatherwork, silverwork, Indian agriculture, Indian nursing, Indian carpentry, and mechanics and carpentry taught to young people in order that they can live well at home, rather than receiving Anglo subjects not suited for the local mores and ways of life. A desire was expressed by one parent for a big farm to be established at the school so young persons could have fresh vegetables and milk and bring better farming techniques to the home.

At Navajo Community College, the feeling was expressed that conditions are in transition, that the tribe is beginning to determine manpower needs on the reservation rather than the colleges. Increased Indian control of schools will offer part of the solution, but the need was also expressed for students to have exposure to professions other than teaching which are needed on the reservation (medicine, scientific vocations, etc.)

PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

It has been said that busing, so controversial in some parts of the country, has been the greatest educational equalizer ever developed through its use in bringing isolated rural children to attend public schools. Certainly this is true for the Indians, although other kinds of problems have developed.

Some students on Indian reservations are bused as much as 60 miles each way every day that the bus travels. The buses often break down because of bad roads on the reservation. Roads are untravelable in bad weather and when the snow melts or when there are flash floods. Students often wait at the bus stops, not knowing whether or not the bus is coming.

Arizona public law provides that students living within one and a half miles of the bus route shall attend public school. Those living beyond that distance have the choice of being carried by their parents in pickup trucks or on horseback distances of 10 to 15 miles to the bus stop—or attending a BIA boarding school sometimes perhaps 500 or more miles away. One Navajo boy, a high school track champion, ran 12 miles each way to and from the bus stop each day.

Costs for transportation are high; Tuba City reported spending $195,000 for high school students and $102,000 for elementary students for 1974-75. This year is the first that the state has picked up school transportation costs, and it remains to be seen how much of the cost for mileage and maintenance will remain to be taken out of the general operating costs of the district. Prior to this year, instructional costs were also expected to cover busing costs; but Indian districts, because of the distances and the bad roads, can be expected to have higher costs than other schools.

In Fort Defiance, 51% of students whose parents reside within the district attend the public school; others either don't go to school or are forced to go to boarding school. The major problem is the lack of road maintenance by BIA and the failure to appropriate funds for building new roads which could reach remote areas. When parents were surveyed as to whether they would send their children to the public schools if there were roads and a boarding facility at the school, an overwhelming affirmative response was returned. Some parents expressed the suspicion that the BIA

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has moved slowly in building and improving roads as a means of slowing down the transition to the public schools and protecting BIA jobs and bureaucracies.

In all the reservations visited by the Task Force, a minimum of 80 to 90% of students were bused each day, usually for long distances.

THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

Although conditions are changing, the Bureau of Indian Affairs still controls the educational systems of most American Indian communities. Of 200 Indian communities nationally with BIA education programs, only 29 have direct control. In 1969, the BIA had contracts with four communities to run their own schools. By 1974 there were only 13 such contracts. At the present time, only 16 tribes have contracts for administering Johnson-O'Malley funds and 15 administer higher education assistance programs.

In BIA schools, the community seldom participates in the planning of curriculum, choice of textbooks, or educational objectives, and the educational programs seldom include the culture of American Indians. Only recently have Indians been promoted into administrative positions.

Teachers are usually selected from a national service roster and may or may not fit the local community. With no special programs established to give teachers the preparation necessary for working with Indian children either by the BIA or the universities, considerable cultural conflict often occurs between teachers and students, and teacher turnover is high. In the absence of locally-controlled school boards, parent participation is rare, although involvement of parent advisory committees is being begun in some instances. Further, since BIA hiring of teachers under federal civil service regulations does not require certification, inadequate grounding in educational methodology, history, and philosophy is too often the case.

There are basically three kinds of schools on Indian reservations, public, BIA day and boarding schools, and missionary schools. In the absence of adequate educational facilities in the past, there was a need in some cases for the boarding and the church schools, but there is little reason now for their continued existence if public schools are to be given adequate facilities and support to provide good education for Indian children.

Boarding schools sometimes provide valuable services—there is water and food for children, clothing, no transportation problems. If the home has been broken, children can receive care. The average expenditure per child in a BIA school was reported as around $3,600, as against a public school expenditure on the reservation of slightly more than $1,100.

There are reports that BIA will close its large Intermountain School in Utah and cancel contracts with peripheral districts in the next few years. If planning begins now, the public schools may be able to absorb most of the students returning to reservation schools. If funds are not provided now to prepare for the transition, there will be even more inadequate facilities for students, a total lack of housing for new teachers, and a complete unreadiness to receive the influx of students.

In the case of the Hopis, the tribe is planning now to build their own high school on the reservation, rather than send students to boarding schools or to the peripheral towns, so that they can restore discipline, stop drug use, and teach children the tribal values.

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LEGISLATION AND FUNDING

The unique claim of Indians on both the United States Government and the state of Arizona is based on treaties signed by the Indian tribes and the federal government and on laws passed by Congress allocating special funds for Indian education and providing state and federal citizenship rights for Indians.

In almost every treaty the federal government promised to provide Indian children with an education, and Congress for the past 170 years has allocated funds for children in reservation, boarding, and public schools. Until recently, only three federal programs (impact aid, Title I of ESEA, and Johnson-O'Malley) existed to support Indian education. State assistance to support Indian education is based this year on average daily membership (ADM), a change this year from the older system of computing state base support on average daily attendance (ADA), which penalized Indian schools because of their high absentee rates due primarily to transportation difficulties.

Impact Aid

Indian children are among those who qualify for federal funds under the federal impact aid program because their parents live and work on federal property. There are two parts to this assistance: Public Law 874, which provides funds for general operating expenses, paid instead of local taxes, and Public Law 815, which is supposed to provide revenues for school construction in districts where there are federally connected children.

Impact aid funds could provide significant support for local schools in improving Indian education; but when districts discriminate in their allocation of educational services the result is that the funds often do little or nothing to improve the opportunities of Indian children.

Although the intent has been that funds be available directly for local districts, Arizona has in the past deducted both P.L. 874 and 815 monies from the state's basic support grants, an action which the Task Force believes is both contrary to the intent of the laws as originally passed and violative of equal protection requirements in the distribution of state resources.

Until this year the procedure for determining state basic support was, as told to the Task Force, that an expert from the State Department of Education would meet with local school officials, review anticipated revenues from federal funds and local taxes, and then provide an arbitrary determination as to the extent of the state contribution. Such a procedure would be directly contrary to the new guidelines for Johnson-O'Malley adopted this past year.

In the case of P.L. 874, an amendment was passed by Congress in 1974 making it permissible for the state to subtract this money from its level of basic support, and the Arizona legislature adopted State Law 1101, which provides that the state may subtract P.L. 874, JOM, or any other monies on a discretionary basis if federal law will permit. According to several sources, the state is not presently subtracting the P.L. 874 or JOM money, but the axe could be lowered at any time. No move has been made to compensate districts for revenues improperly taken by the state in the past which would have permitted improved educational opportunities and better physical plants.

The state has taken the unfortunate position that school construction on the reservations is a matter of federal responsibility. In the case of P.L. 815, funds have been slow in coming and have been assigned to districts by the federal government only

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on a priority basis. Accordingly, the Task Force was astounded to find that as many as half or more of reservation children are assigned to temporary facilities (trailers, portable classrooms, etc.) when they attend the reservation schools in the public school districts. On the basis of visual observation, however, the BIA does not seem to have the same difficulty in finding funds for school construction.

Johnson-O'Malley

The Johnson-O'Malley Act of 1934, since amended, is a federal education program designed solely to benefit Indians, with federal money provided to states so that they may educate eligible Indian students in public school systems. The Act is a supplemental program designed to meet needs of Indian children not being met under other federal programs. JOM money is, under regulations adopted in August, 1974, *supplemental* and is not intended to *supplant* other sources of aid. Contracts may be entered into with a state, school district, or Indian corporation for:

1. Supplemental programs, with funds distributed among the states on an equitable basis.

2. Operational expenditures under extraordinary circumstances.

Contracts may now authorize operational expenditures only when the school district establishes the following:

1. That it cannot satisfy the applicable minimum state standards in the absence of such funds.

2. That it has made a reasonable tax effort with a mill levy at least equal to the state average.

3. That it has fully utilized all other sources of financial aid, including all forms of state aid, P.L. 874 payments, and so forth. The state aid contribution per pupil must be at least equal to the state average.

4. There must be at least 70% eligible Indian enrollment in the district or school served.

Districts which meet these requirements are known as "major impact" districts, and include most public school districts on Indian reservations in Arizona. Despite the expressed intent of the Act to deal only with Indian needs, JOM money has traditionally been used by school districts to supplant their general operating funds, thereby perhaps benefitting the system but not necessarily providing improvements in programs for Indians. In 1968, the Governor of Arizona signed State Bill 2, which required that state basic support to school districts be directly reduced by the amount of JOM funds received on each child. Although current JOM regulations prohibit such supplanting, again no effort has been made to restore funds to districts which were lost because of such practices. In addition, the state JOM allocation pays the costs of operating the Division of Indian Education within the State Department of Education rather than the state itself. While this practice is permissible under the law, the total state JOM allocation is reduced by the costs of the office, making fewer funds available at local levels for Indian children.

In a further set of ironies, the superimposition of administrative layers, in addition to creating red tape, duplicate sets of files at various levels, delay, and confusion, means that basic decisions are made at federal, regional, state and county levels before

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the funds even get to the local districts. In Kayenta, the district has had to borrow to make up for funds presently in the bank in Phoenix but not yet allocated through the channels to the district. Interest cost will be $10,000 on money already theirs! In Fort Defiance, the Window Rock district has been charged $5,000 for administrative services for processing of funds by Apache County, money again taken out of the education of children. Rather than providing funds directly to the district, the County controls their disbursement, making it necessary for Fort Defiance personnel to drive 110 miles each way every two weeks just to pick up pay checks for teachers, and even further in other districts in Apache County. Both transportation and county fees for the services come out of education funds for students.

Although costs of pupil transportation are finally being supplemented by the state instead of from local instructional funds, additional care needs to be taken to find other sources of funds for activities which would not be expected to be covered out of such funds in other districts. Teacher retirement is one example of funds which come out of the general school budget of reservation public schools. In Apache County, 56% of the taxable property is found on the reservation. The County collects taxes from the reservation property, but pays nothing back to the reservation schools. The result is that reservation taxes provide retirement supplements for teachers in non-Indian schools off the reservation, but reservation schools are required to pay their own teacher retirement costs out of their JOM allocations. The same problem occurs in the case of housing for teachers and other employees. Unable to obtain funds to maintain building programs in any case, JOM money is used, together with other funds ostensibly intended to improve instruction for Indian children, to build and maintain housing rented to teachers. With anticipated enrollment gains from reductions in BIA school functions in the next few years, districts will find it impossible to provide adequate housing for employees, already a serious problem.

Changes in JOM regulations this year and in the state equalization formula have created another impossible situation for the major impact districts, and predictions were consistently heard by the Task Force that without substantial changes in the provision of financial assistance, there would be no public systems on the reservation within two to five years. Chinle, for example, reported going $659,000 into the red last year, and this year the JOM allocation was only half the amount anticipated. In Window Rock the state allocation was cut around $200,000, and it will receive half the money expected. Ganado went as much as $1,000,000 behind. Tuba City estimates that it will be bankrupt in two years unless conditions change.

Title I

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act has provided around $1,500,000,000 annually to school districts across the country for compensatory education programs since its passage in 1965. Title I provides financial assistance to local school districts for supplemental educational services to economically and educationally deprived students, and, because of the severe poverty and unemployment in many Indian communities, Indian children are especially reliant on Title I assistance.

Until recent years Title I funds, contrary to federal guidelines, were used to supplant local and state funds rather than to supplement existing revenues in providing compensatory services to economically disadvantaged children. As with JOM and impact aid, Title I funds are funneled through the state. The cost of operating the state Title I office is taken from the state allocation. Given inadequate base funding for schools in the first place, and since Title I is among a number of so-called "categorical" programs requiring use of funds for supplementary purposes only, the result is a financial imperative to track and segregate Indian children into special classes. Fort

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Defiance, which expected to get $270,000 in Title I this year, will not receive any money for compensatory programs.

Title IV

Enacted in 1972, Title IV (the Indian Education Act), provided financial assistance to local educational agencies to develop and carry out elementary and secondary programs to meet special educational needs of Indian students. Title IV provides for acquisition of necessary equipment designed to meet Indian children's needs, preservice and inservice training for teachers of Indian children, educational enrichment programs, vocational instruction, comprehensive guidance counseling, bilingual/bicultural programs, special health and nutrition services, and adult education programs. The definition of Indians under Title IV was changed in part to encourage improvement of services to Indians living in urban areas and off the reservations, thereby increasing greatly the number of persons covered under the legislation. The Office of Education, which administers Title IV, did not request increased funds for FY 1975, to cover the cost of servicing the increased numbers of Indian students. As a result, there was a reduction in the per capita estimated federal payment from $112 down to $75 per child in 1974-75—a catastrophe for districts already under severe financial pressure.

Title VII

Title VII, the Bilingual Education Act, provides assistance for development of bilingual/bicultural materials. At the present time the Office of Education plans to take all materials development components out of local projects with six regional materials centers affiliated with universities to be organized to handle materials development for as many of the language groups involved in bilingual education as possible. The intent is to establish not just clearinghouses, but centers where the whole process of materials development from creation to distribution would take place. The Task Force heard many expressions of concern about this development, which many parents and educators felt would cripple existing local efforts and altogether discourage local participation. After all, they reasoned, how much time could people spend traveling to and from the regional laboratories to provide input, and how could that be translated back in ways that would stimulate local interest and participation in development programs when fundamental policy decisions would be made so far away from home?

Arizona

Among those states with large Indian populations, Arizona has had the worst reputation with regard to its handling of Indian programs and commitment to bringing about effective programs for improvement of Indian education. The *supplanting* of state support monies with federal funds allocated to provide *supplementary* programs has already been discussed, and serious questions have been raised concerning whether the state provides equal allocation of resources for Indian children as required by federal regulations and statutes. Although the state ADM payments presently provide about $1,600,000 of Window Rock's $3,800,000 annual budget, this can be contrasted with districts in New Mexico, for example, where state sources reportedly provide up to 84% of the money used in educating Indian students. Any litigation, of course, will present an additional financial burden to taxpayers and ultimately to Indian children.

The result is that Indian children attend schools where the basic level of support from local, state, and federal funds continues to be totally inadequate and where

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categorical and supplementary assistance is too often spent on the wrong children, on programs which are not supplemental, and which do not meet the needs of Indian children.

The continuation of categorical supplementary programs is necessary to ensure that funds intended for Indian students actually go to them, and adequate audit trails and accounting procedures, reportedly not now being required by the Phoenix BIA District Office, may help to ensure that such actually happens. Another consequence of the presence of such programs, however, is that "grantsmanship" often becomes a primary determinant in the dispensation of federal and state funds. If a wealthy district can afford specialists who can write attractive proposals and if it has resources which provide additional political or influential clout, it has advantages in obtaining grants and allocations which are not available to smaller districts. Grantsmanship should have less to do with the ability to obtain adequate basic support; and the entire system of categorical aid should be reviewed for its impact on districts serving Indian students in this respect. Consortiums of small districts with each other and with universities may provide one answer, but overall system reform seems more desirable to meet long-range needs.

Teachers and children alike suffer from another inequity in Arizona state law because of the legislature's 7% ceiling on school budget increases. With the number of Indian students in Arizona increasing at a rate of about 6% per year, and with the costs of inflation running at 15% or more, the schools are in a losing situation. One result is that if supplementary funds made available through federal programs cause a district budget increase to exceed the 7% limitation, the difference can be either cut from the state allocation or the district must negotiate with the state in order to receive the extra monies that were intended to provide services over and above regular school programs in any case, a thoroughly discouraging and indefensible situation.

Local Problems

In Chinle, 34% of the general budget is spent on instruction, which includes costs of teacher salaries, as against a state average for school districts of about 67%. The difference is accounted for because public schools on Indian reservations have expenses that are not customary for other districts, including housing for employees, higher costs in supplying water, excessive transportation needs, teacher retirement, administrative costs for programs taken by state and county governments, telephone, and special program development for Indian needs.

Until a few years ago, the process for determining local tax allocations was that a state expert would come to the school, check out the proposed budget, determine the assessment to taxpayers, and then negotiate the state allocation. One consequence of this practice may have been a lack of incentive for development of supplementary programs and a failure on the part of the state's fiscal management system to keep up with changing educational needs.

Since Indian children need more money per capita than other children, a system which provides, even with extensive supplemental programs available, an overall school budget no better than other districts in the state is inherently unfair. The Window Rock average operating cost, for example, is about $1,136 per child, and Chinle is slightly less, but the amounts available for instructional costs are much too far below those levels.

The new JOM regulations were ostensibly designed to reduce both the level of basic support as well as the number of eligible school districts, and with funds no

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longer available for non-Indian students, many districts are in a quandary as to how to operate when most of the available monies in already inadequate budgets require spending only for supplementary programs. One obvious solution is to improve the level of basic support from the state so that monies intended as supplementary can be used that way without the dual effects of cutting programs and segregating children.

Another irony is found in the difference in basic support between BIA schools on the reservation (about $3,400 per child) and the public schools (about $1,100). With inadequate resources expended for maintenance and road construction, and with obvious differences in physical facilities, the Indian-controlled public schools are at a severe disadvantage.

Use of temporary facilities for educational purposes in reservation schools is at an unconscionable level. Over 50% of children at Chinle are in temporary classrooms, usually trailers, and 48% of existing classrooms in Fort Defiance are temporary units. With school districts unable to build permanent facilities and districts restricted from entering into lease/purchase agreements, the schools must either buy or rent temporaries, a process which leads to school facilities being provided at the lowest possible cost regardles of quality or adequacy.

In evaluating educational neglect for Indian students in Arizona, the deplorable conditions of the Yaquis in the Phoenix area and in Tucson deserve at least passing mention. Actually political refugees from Mexico, the Yaquis have no status with BIA, having never been recognized under federal legislation as being entitled to services provided for other Indians. Because Indian children born in the United States are entitled to recognition as citizens of the state as well as the nation, special enabling legislation should be passed to permit the extension of programs to meet their special needs.

The number of taxpayers on Indian reservations is very low. There are only 20 taxpayers in the Window Rock district, the Task Force was told, and only 7 in the Kayenta district. Indian citizens do not pay property taxes as a result of the special status of the reservations, and they should not be required to do so. As the same time, present tax levels, because of the inadequacy of state support, are high; and means must be found to ensure equitable assessments in order to permit expansion of business and industry on the reservations, thereby increasing the numbers of jobs available for Indian workers. Local taxes will not be sufficient to cover anticipated increases in school costs in the immediate future, and existing businesses will be driven away or made insolvent if planning does not begin now.

The Task Force learned of one unique situation on the Papago reservation. The important Hechla mine is located in the northern part of the reservation in Pinal County, which is part of the (non-Indian) Casa Grande school district. The district receives property taxes from the mine rather than the Papago Tribe. Efforts to divert the tax revenues to the tribe, where they belong, were reportedly met with threats by Casa Grande officials that Papago students would be denied admission in the Casa Grande schools if the taxes were taken by the tribe.

The Papagos, whose territory came under United States jurisdiction as a result of the Gadsden Purchase of 1853, have the unique distinction of never having fought the United States government. Consequently, they historically were not provided the same benefits as those acquired by other tribes in treaty settlements, and for a long period of time they were the only tribe which did not control the mineral resources on its reservation. Whether the Casa Grande/Hechla situation is a result of that situation or gerrymandering is not as important as seeing the Indian resources are controlled by Indian people. Mostly desert land, the Papago reservation yields relatively little in tax

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base in any case, and the Papagos are entitled to receive the income from property on the reservation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Task Force recognizes that conditions of Indian education and the needs and desires of local Indian communities vary from district to district, and that some specific recommendations may not be appropriate for or desired by some Indian groups at this time. At the same time, the Task Force urges that each recommendation be carefully considered as among alternatives in achieving better and more adequate educational programs for our nation's First Americans. The Task Force especially recommends that priority be given to the following areas of special concern:

1. Increased Indian participation and input in educational decision-making affecting Indian students.

2. Increased assistance to Indian communities and to schools serving Indian students for improvement of instruction in Indian languages and in English and for improved programs leading to greater cultural awareness among Indian people.

3. Provision of adequate financial support and assistance in meeting increased financial needs of schools serving Indian children.

With these priorities in mind, the Task Force submits the following general recommendations as guidelines in developing programs and legislation to conquer the educational neglect that has so tragically characterized Indian education in Arizona and in the United States.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Effective involvement of local Indian parents, students, and tribal leaders is a fundamental condition in the provision of educational opportunity for Indian students. Every effort should be made to assist, train, and support such persons in their efforts to improve the quality of education being made available to Indian children and adults.

2. Tribal councils, parent advisory committees, Indian boards of education, and other legally-established groups should have maximum authority for making decisions concerning educational policies, financing, and expenditures.

3. Non-instructional costs such as pupil transportation, teacher retirement, housing, construction, and other special services not normally provided by school districts in non-Indian communities should be supplemented by special appropriations by the state and the federal government.

4. Schools should be developed as community education centers, both responsive to and reflective of local input and needs, and curriculum should reflect local conditions and locally-developed educational objectives.

5. Federal agencies with authority and responsibility for the allocation of funds for Indian education and protection of civil rights, including the Justice Department, HEW, and the BIA, should monitor, review, and take any necessary action with

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regard to establishing accountability by state and local officials for misuse or misallocation of funds designated to assist in the education of Indian students.

6. Supplementary services to Indian young people should be provided in programs operating both outside of and in cooperation with regular school channels to ensure accommodation to special needs.

7. The Bill of Indian Student Rights, recently adopted by the BIA, should be expanded and implemented in every school receiving funds for the education of Indian Students.

8. Persons speaking local Indian languages should be employed as teachers, school administrators, counselors, teacher aides, home-school liaisons, and in other positions, in the schools where peer and authority contact with Indian students and parents can occur.

9. Construction and maintenance of roads on Indian reservations should be improved and expanded.

10. School systems should be coterminous with Indian reservations, at the option of local Indian groups, and decentralized so that schools will be available to separate villages, chapters, districts, or pueblos within the reservations.

11. BIA boarding and day school facilities should be turned over to local public school districts controlled by Indian people, with maintenance of adequate financial support and with construction of boarding facilities and dormitories on or near school campuses so that reservation children can remain closer to home.

12. Special efforts must be made in training, recruiting, and up-grading Indian teachers, teacher aides, and other persons so as to take over educational responsibilities in schools serving Indian students.

13. Teachers should work with parents and tribal authorities to establish closer home-school relations and to develop approaches that will be more responsive to local conditions and needs.

14. Classes and workshops in Indian languages, history, and culture should be available to both preservice and inservice teachers and should be mandatory for permanent certification for teaching in districts serving substantial numbers of Indian children.

15. Teaching conditions and benefits should be high enough and living conditions should be adequate in schools serving Indian students to attract and keep the very best educators.

16. Federal, state, and private support for training Indians as school administrators should be expanded immediately to provide for needs in districts where Indian citizens are exercising expanded influence.

17. Priority should be established for support of locally-developed materials on Indian languages and cultures.

18. Curriculum should reflect the needs of students for identity with local languages and cultures and should be responsive both to students who do not speak Indian language as well as those Indian students who do not come from English-speaking backgrounds.

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19. Basic instruction in Indian languages should be available at all levels of public schools serving Indian students and for preservice and inservice teachers of Indian students, with special assistance available for development of languages, including alphabets and dictionaries.

20. Cultural awareness programs should be available for Indians of all ages both in regular school programs and in alternative programs.

21. Accreditation and certification requirements at local and regional levels should be responsive to special Indian needs.

22. Career education opportunities and preparation for careers both on and off the reservations should be stressed in schools serving Indian students.

23. Allocations should be provided now to prepared for rising enrollments of Indian students in public school systems on the reservations, including purchase of materials, housing and school construction, and training programs.

24. Bilingual/bicultural education, English as a second language, and Indian as a second language should be available in all elementary schools serving Indian students.

25. State restrictions on the use of and diversion of monies made available for supplementary programs should be terminated, and state allocations for base support for Indian students should be at least equivalent to any other districts in the state.

26. State base support for Indian schools should be sufficient so that funds intended as supplementary will not be needed for supplanting of either state or local funds in providing education for Indian students.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

1. State and federal legislation should require the addition of Indian school board members in major impact and peripheral districts where Indians are not selected through regular election processes.

2. Parent Advisory Committees in federal Title programs should have policy control and veto power over expenditure of federal funds.

3. Assistance should be provided on request in establishing and training village chapter, and community education committees.

4. Educational personnel, including especially teachers and school administrators, should seek every opportunity to attend meetings of parents under whatever circumstances may be appropriate.

5. National organizations could individually or jointly sponsor conferences and workshops to train parents for involvement and in federal program development.

6. Ombudsmen should be appointed or elected to advocate for parent and student rights in school matters.

7. Parents should be invited to attend classes in school with their children (and separately), and should be provided with free transportation, and food. Such

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classes could be provided in basic skills reading, writing) as well as adult education and college preparatory classes. There could also be classes in new math, the metric system, and new curriculum developments for parents.

8. Tribal means of selecting leaders, when different from non-Indian customs or expectations, should be honored.

9. School leaders must see to it that Indian parents understand the school is theirs, not "The Little White Man's School." Parent representatives must be chosen from the chapter or village level, not appointed.

10. Conferences and workshops on parent and students rights are needed.

11. Special days for parents to attend school, with free lunch and transportation, can be provided.

12. The HEW Office of Civil Rights, the Justice Department, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs should evaluate districts serving Indian students which have little Indian involvement to determine compliance with voting rights legislation and non-discrimination requirements in employment and treatment of students.

13. School programs could be offered on a year-round basis to provide special programs, courses, and activities not possible during the winter time and to offer additional opportunities for both parents and students for education.

14. Indian parents should be consulted at all times in planning educational objectives and formulating long-range development and building programs.

15. Wherever possible, direct funding to tribal councils established as local education agencies should be provided.

16. Decentralization of schools to the point of recognition of local district village, chapter, authority should be encouraged.

THE STUDENTS

1. Programs such as *Educational Talent Search* should be funded and expanded so as to seek out interested youth and provide guidance and assistance in obtaining vocational counseling and higher education opportunities.

2. Corporal punishment should be abolished in all schools serving Indian students.

3. The Bill of Indian Student Rights should be expanded, under contract by the BIA, to all schools receiving Indian students.

4. Suspensions and expulsions of students for reasons other than safety in the schools should be eliminated altogether, with the development of alternative programs to meet special needs of students not fitting into regular school programs.

5. Indian high school and college students should have available special services when attending school away from home, including counseling, equal opportunity programs, subsidized visits home, financial support, ombudsmen, and, of course, courses and subject matter related to their own cultures.

6. Teacher aides can be employed to ride school buses with young students to assist with special needs and emergencies.

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7. Teachers, counselors, and aides, speaking local languages and dialects, should be available to visit the homes of students and to provide liaison with the school.

8. There should be advance contact with the home, preferably through personal visits, whenever student problems are developing.

9. Written communications with the home in certain communities, when necessary, should always be written in both English and the local language, and should be sent through some means other than the child. If the communication is important, personal follow-up by appropriate staff should be made.

10. Realistic career education programs, stressing job opportunities both on and off the reservation, should be provided throughout the school experience.

11. Curriculum should always be modified to fit the needs of students. While specific learning objectives should be identified, students should not be required to fit a pre-determined mold as in the past.

12. Learning activities should be developed around group cooperation, not competition or individual aggressiveness.

13. Schools should be built nearer the students, and new roads with better maintenance should be provided so that they can get to school.

14. Older people should be brought into the school in both peer and authority roles, to be utilized in teaching respect for the old ways, providing a link with the cultural heritage through telling of stories and direct experience with the old language.

15. Schools serving Indian children should provide Indian dancing and games for recreation in addition to any other recreational activities.

16. Opportunities for training and upgrading should be systematically provided for non-certified employees.

17. Dormitories should be provided on or near school campuses to provide for children living away from bus routes or whose transportation during bad weather is inadequate. Such dormitories should be provided on an optional basis for children from broken homes as well as for children who would otherwise be served in BIA boarding schools.

18. The school must always show its respect for the values of the home and the tribal culture.

19. Intergroup relations activities and ethnic studies programs should be provided in all schools, with special emphasis in those schools where conflict (white/Indian or Indian/Indian) is now occurring.

20. Cultural awareness centers should be provided in each district serving Indian children, separately funded but working closely with the schools.

21. Cultural awareness classes should be systematically provided for all Indian students and for other students on an optional basis, subject to the wishes of local tribal officials.

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22. School systems should be decentralized so that schools can be built to serve separate villages, chapters, or pueblos as desired by local communities, especially in the case of the Hopis.

TEACHERS

1. Programs should be developed in cooperation with local teacher associations to work with teachers on communications and personal growth and to expand existing programs for inservice education.

2. Teachers should make every effort to visit homes and family members, to attend Chapter or village meetings when invited, and to get to know the life styles and values of their students and their families.

3. A consortium of school boards, tribal councils and/or tribal education committees, and universities could assist in providing inservice education and graduate programs to teachers in isolated areas, preferably in cooperation with such Indian-controlled institutions as the Navajo Community College.

4. A national effort should be sponsored to locate, train, and recruit Indian teachers and other professionals, with upgrading and career ladders programs for teacher aides. Supplements could be provided to exemplary college programs meeting specified standards on Indian-related curriculum and training activities.

5. Parents should be invited to visit classes, even to sit in on a regular basis in basic courses. Teacher associations could sponsor special activities designed to help explain programs to parents and to improve parent-teacher understanding.

6. Orientation programs for new teachers should be consistent, well-planned, and have specific objectives, preferably conducted in adequate time periods (summer) prior to contact with Indian children as well as throughout the teaching year.

7. State universities could work in cooperation with tribal officials to develop courses in Indian language, history, culture, and teacher preparation programs designed to create understanding of specific local cultures as well as national Indian problems.

8. Increased numbers of internships and fellowships are needed to prepare teachers of Indian students for practical experience with specific tribes and specific local communities.

9. Increased efforts to develop curriculum and methodology for teaching Indian students should be supported.

10. Courses in intergroup relations and understanding of Indian history, language, and culture should be mandatory for certification in Arizona teacher education programs.

11. Summer workshops and extended internship programs in educational methodology and practice are needed for teacher aides.

12. Teacher salaries and benefits on Indian reservations should be high enough both to provide attractive living standards and to attract and retain the very best teachers to work with Indian children. Salary supplements provided by the state

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or federal government might be one answer, but in any case, good teachers desiring to work with Indian children should not be penalized for their commitment. Pay and other benefits should be at least equal to the best districts in the state.

13. If school districts have policies with discriminatory consequences such as those requiring residence within the district, these should be removed or appropriate legal action taken.

14. Sabbatical programs are desirable for all teachers, but should be mandatory in order to provide opportunities for renewal and upgrading of reservation teachers.

15. The AEA or the State Department of Education could sponsor teacher exchanges between districts on a voluntary basis.

16. Salary supplements could be offered to teachers with special experiences or with the ability to speak in both English and the local language.

17. Parent-teacher conferences should be periodic and regular but with provision for teachers to travel to homes and isolated areas to meet with parents. Transportation costs and release time could be for such purposes and for attending Chapter meetings, etc.

18. Teachers should be encouraged to bring classes to the students, through meeting elsewhere than the school campus, in different areas of the district, for example, or at community centers closer to children's residences.

19. Classes could be offered both for children and adults at sites other than in the school building.

20. Teachers must set realistic goals for Indian students based on their individual needs, abilities, and aspirations, and teach to those goals.

COUNSELING

1. Additional programs are needed to train and upgrade professional counselors, especially Indian counselors for schools serving Indian students.

2. Additional counseling programs and psychological services are needed especially through alternative programs operating separately but in cooperation with the school system. Examples are the Educational Talent Search program, the Gila River Native American Program, and California's Equal Opportunity Program, which provides minority young people to work with minority students in alternative counseling programs on state university campuses.

3. Additional job-training work-study, and apprenticeship opportunities need to be channeled through school programs.

4. There is a need for training conferences and workshops to bring together teachers, counselors, students, and parents to achieve greater understanding and response to Indian cultural needs, work opportunities, and social problems.

5. Family planning, social living, and other courses and services should be available in schools at the option of tribal councils and/or tribal education committees.

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ADMINISTRATORS

1. There is an immediate need for expanding federal and foundation support for training Indians as school administrators through internship and fellowship programs, in non-Indian districts as well as those serving large Indian populations.

2. Non-Indian school administrators in districts serving Indian children should have extensive grounding, as should other professional staff, in Indian culture, history, language, and social organization.

3. The BIA and civil rights enforcement agencies should review educational practices and services to Indian students in public and non-public schools, both in terms of overtly discriminatory actions, as well as for the consequences of omission or commission in actions which may be otherwise well-intentioned or consistent with legal requirements.

4. University programs serving administrators in districts serving Indian students should offer continuing courses in program development, funding, and implementation under Indian-related legislation.

5. Superintendents in districts serving Indian students should have available competent assistance and consultant help in business affairs and federal programs so that they may be freed to work on educational problems in their school districts.

6. Superintendents and other professional staff should have adequate preparation, through workshops or educational courses, in working with community and tribal education committees and parent advisory councils in Indian communities.

7. In the absence of an enforceable code of ethics among school administrators, a system to enforce individual liability and accountability must be established where individuals knowingly participate in the misuse of Indian funds or in discrimination against Indian children.

8. Administrators in all school districts and especially in Indian school communities must be prepared to meet with local people and leaders and should encourage teachers and other staff to do likewise.

CURRICULUM

1. State and federal enforcement agencies must monitor the impact of new special education programs on segregation and tracking of Indian students.

2. Ombudsmen should be available to assist in getting help for Indian students and parents in their dealings with the educational systems and the colleges.

3. Information on special education programs and special services should be published in bilingual pamphlets and other publications and made widely available to Indian parents.

4. The Arizona Department of Education should arrange for and reflect Indian input in adoption and approval of textbooks and learning materials used in Arizona schools. Officials should review, in cooperation with Indian parents and tribal officials, all educational materials now in use for cultural accuracy and relevance.

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5. Courses and activities should be developed to teach Indian arts and crafts, weaving, silverwork, leatherwork, home economics, carpentry, nursing, and agriculture in addition to traditional courses.

6. Older Indians should be brought into the schools whenever possible to work with both elementary and high school students.

7. Curriculum content, philosophy, and courses of study should reflect Indian input, philosophy, and needs.

8. Bicultural and bilingual experiences should be available in all classes in major impact districts.

9. Curriculum must be revised to meet the individual needs of students who speak an Indian language as well as those who have little or no experience with the local Indian language.

10. Materials in appropriate Indian languages and responsive to varying Indian cultures should be prepared and disseminated for use both in the schools and in the homes.

11. Alternatives to traditional certification must be developed to enable the expansion of community-based education relevant to the circumstances in local Indian communities.

12. Conferences and workshops should be provided on request to assist Indian groups in developing their own curriculums, educational philosophies, and priorities.

13. Control of Indian education, to the degree possible, should be transferred to Tribal authorities and removed from the state; including the diversion of funds through state channels.

14. Non-Indian public and educational officials must recognize that Indians are not only capable of, but have the right to set their own educational goals.

15. Teachers and school administrators should cooperate in reaching out to local chapters, villages, districts, and isolated communities in attending meetings, providing special classes, and establishing better communications with both students and parents.

16. In order to help parents understand that school is important, they should be invited to join reading, language, and mathematics classes with their children.

17. Courses in Indian philosophy may be as important as courses in Indian language and history, when taught by Indian teachers and with the support of local Indian leaders.

18. Indian consultants should be retained to assist in removing Indian stereotypes and inaccurate information from learning materials, and to bring about factual, realistic information on Indian history, contributions, and problems.

19. Utilization of standardized tests with Indian students should be tightly regulated and should never lead to differentiation of learning opportunities.

20. Programs for pre-school Indian children should be available by age three.

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LANGUAGE

1. Instruction in native American languages should be available in all preservice education programs, on an optional basis with credit toward temporary certification and should be mandatory for permanent certification of teachers employed in major impact schools.

2. Teachers of Indian students should have the ability to converse in, as well as read and write, the local language.

3. The schools should respect the right of every student to speak any language used at home without being punished, ridiculed, or discouraged.

4. Experience in Indian as a second language should be provided in elementary grades together with extensive bilingual instruction for those Indian students who do not speak a native language.

5. Special financial assistance should be made available to tribal groups and others for use in linguistic development of alphabet systems for Indian languages and for publication of materials in Indian languages.

6. Assistance should be provided for development of dictionaries so that the tribal languages can be standardized and retained.

7. Instruction in Indian language should recognize the differences between the traditional languages and slang versions.

8. Optional courses in Indian languages should be available both during and after school hours for both adults and children.

9. If any tribal groups do not choose to have their language taught in the schools this should be recognized and honored.

10. Classes in areas besides language should seek to make use of Indian literature, poetry, songs, and history, and students should be encouraged to write their own stories, songs, and poems in traditional languages.

11. Parents and school officials should insist that language instruction center on "proper" English or "proper" Indian as the case may be, so that language skills can be consistently developed for use both on and off the reservation.

12. Students in predominantly or all-Indian schools should have planned experiences in speaking English with non-Indians as one means of reducing accents and reinforcing learning. Likewise, students should have consistent exposure to and opportunity to converse in traditional Indian languages.

13. Hiring of old people as teacher aides and instructors in language classes can be a significant means of transmitting the traditional languages.

14. Experiments might be conducted with simultaneous translation equipment in classrooms to determine practicality and replicability of such instruction.

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CULTURE

1. Classes in Indian arts and crafts, skills, and vocational opportunities should be offered at all levels.

2. Indian cultural values and experiences should be interwoven in learning activities in all classes. Curriculum should be integrated, not "white" with a little "Indian" added

3. Schools should recognize and adhere to differences in cultural values. Eye contact, for example, can be extremely threatening to some children, as can aggressive, competitive, individualized activities in many so-called traditional classes.

4. Schools should teach comparative values of Indian and non-Indian culture, being careful not to become agents of indoctrination to any degree that absolutely cannot be avoided.

5. Separately funded cultural awareness and materials development programs should be maintained on Indian reservations and in major impact districts, with regional centers and universities at most providing support, consultation, and dissemination.

6. Regional materials development centers may serve the needs of some small groups unable to maintain their own programs, but programs should be decentralized as much as possible so that development will not be impaired in existing and potentially self-sustaining programs in local schools and communities.

7. Student accomplishment in school should be encouraged, as much as possible, through group activity and support rather than through individual rewards and punishments.

8. There is a continuing and great need for more textbooks, films, and other learning materials on Indians in both English and in specific Indian languages and alphabets. At the option of the tribe, assistance should be given in developing materials (and alphabets, where none presently exist).

9. Cultural awareness courses for teachers of Indian students are necessary and should be mandatory for permanent certification in Arizona, if not prerequisites for initial certification.

10. It is extremely important that non-Indian teachers and school officials be careful that the school does not corrupt, distort, or co-opt Indian cultural and religious values. To the degree possible, cultural programs in the "white man's school" should be accountable to tribal authority.

11. Cultural awareness programs should teach both the values and history of specific local tribes as well as understanding of other Indian cultures and the interrelationships of Indian value systems, as in Najavo Community College's excellent Navajo and Indian Studies Department.

12. A fundamental purpose of schools on the reservation should be to transmit knowledge and skills which will enable students to survive in contemporary society outside the reservation, as well as in traditional Indian societies.

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ACCREDITATION AND CERTIFICATION

1. Alternatives in accreditation of educational institutions and teacher certification must be explored in order that schools serving Indian students can be more relevant to Indian educational needs. Among steps which could be taken now are:

   a. Adoption of state legislation similar to California's Exemplary Certificate Law, which permits certification for special purposes of persons with special qualifications other than traditional educational preparation.

   b. Knowledge of local Indian languages might be a substitute for some parts of normal teacher training requirements, possibly with credit toward regular certification granted for successful teaching experience or completion of special training programs.

   c. Subsidies to universities or educational consortiums for preparing and upgrading teachers of Indians and Indian teachers.

   d. Improved teacher training programs relevant to Indian educational requirements in colleges of teacher education.

   e. Workshops and seminars at reservation schools offering college credit for participating teacher aides and others.

2. Teacher exchange programs could be worked out between school districts in Arizona, with non-Indian teachers gaining valuable experience by having supervised experiences in reservation schools and reservation teachers and teacher aides having the opportunity to broaden horizons through experiences in other parts of the state. Teachers in existing year-round schools in Arizona could easily use time between terms for such purposes.

3. When the nation faced Russian challenges in space and technology in the 1950's and 1960's, the National Defense Education Act provided crash assistance in upgrading teachers in resident and non-resident programs with subsidies for educational expenses and living costs. Such programs could be reinstated and expanded to develop qualified teachers and administrators for Indian schools.

4. Standards for certification of substitutes should be flexible enough to recognize local needs on reservations, although courses and programs provided in such areas should also be provided in order to transmit to such persons basic grounding in educational methods and philosophy.

5. Tribal sovereignty should be recognized at least to the point that requirements could be negotiated between state and tribal officials so that qualified persons can be employed in the schools.

HIGHER EDUCATION

1. Joint programs, at the option of Navajo Community College and tribal officials, should be encouraged between NCC and state universities, for such purposes as improvement and standardization of curriculum in both types of institutions, interchange and updating of information and development of cooperative efforts to support education of Indian students.

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2. Open admissions for Indian students should be established as policy in all state and public-supported private universities, with tuition and personal expenses, if necessary, subsidized by the state or the BIA.

3. Program affiliation between NCC and state universities might be an avenue to achieve accreditation of Indian-controlled education in reservation communities such as Tuba City and Kayenta, particularly through establishment of "outreach" programs in such communities and on the NCC campus.

4. Means must be found to utilize and obtain official sanction of Indian persons without diplomas or degrees as instructors in programs related to Indian needs.

5. State legislation could alter current accreditation requirements restricting the use of non-certified teachers in Indian-related programs, with the understanding that there should be no diminution of quality of instruction but rather that new means be found to accredit persons with special skills.

6. Greater involvement should be sought for Indian educators as advisors, consultants, and participants in university pre-service and extension programs.

7. Additional supplementary and compensatory programs should be available to Indian students on college campuses in Arizona, examples of which might include such alternative counseling programs as the Educational Opportunity Program in California, where young minority persons are employed by the state to work outside the college hierarchy to assist minority students of various groups.

8. Efforts toward equalization of Indian opportunity in higher education should be designed and implemented toward the objective of bringing about parity of college entrance and graduation of Indian students at the same level as the national average for all students in the next five years.

9. A graduate institute of Indian languages, history, and culture should be established in Arizona.

CAREER EDUCATION

1. There should be career education programs beginning at the earliest grades, through high school and college, related to reservation life, including dry farming, agriculture, home economics, construction, electronics, weaving, arts and crafts and nursing.

2. Career education programs should help to develop saleable skills to assist in transition to life off the reservation at the option of the young person.

3. Basic adult education programs are needed in local areas, including reading, English, Indian as a second language, mathematics, home economics, manual arts, and other areas. Parents should have the opportunity to attend classes with their children on a voluntary basis with separate supplements to the public school district to cover any necessary additional expenses, including transportation, food, and instructional materials. Indian tribes and universities could establish jointly coordinated projects if tribes were funded to write contracts for such purposes.

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4. Students should have the opportunity through field experiences to observe employment situations in a variety of occupations both on and off the reservation. Student exchange programs and college visitations would also be appropriate.

5. Alcohol and drug programs which reach all corners of the reservation, not just the population centers, are needed, and should stress employment preparation, counseling, and referral.

6. Increased vocational offerings through Indian-controlled institutions such as Navajo Community College and Rough Rock Demonstration School should be separately funded.

7. BIA and Indian-controlled public schools could be used on a dual basis as adult education centers.

PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

1. Efforts should be made to decentralize systems where possible and to build schools closer to Indian students.

2. Legislation is needed to require more and better roads on reservations and better maintenance.

3. Year-round schools would alleviate some of the transportation problems due to bad weather.

4. Construction of boarding facilities on or near public school campuses would allow continuation of needed services to students living in isolated areas while permitting them to live closer to home under potentially more amenable conditions.

5. Federal supplements under federal impact laws for pupil transportation might be appropriate because of the relatively higher costs of service on Indian reservations.

THE BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS

1. Tribes should have the authority to select their own system of management to operate their schools.

2. Allocations should begin now to prepare for the changeover from BIA to public schools, including new housing, school construction, and equipment and textbook purchase.

3. Education functions could be totally removed from BIA and placed with Indian-controlled public schools, preferably with the BIA providing assistance to ensure adequate educational facilities and teachers, boarding facilities, housing for teachers, etc.

4. As a minimum, parent advisory committees should be established in all BIA schools as a preliminary step to phasing in Indian-controlled boards of education.

5. The BIA should assist in building schools closer to Indian populations rather than huge edifices as in Teba City.

6. The Indian Preference Act should be extended to schools contracting with BIA for services to Indian students until affirmative action goals are reached.

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7. Bilingual/bicultural education, English as a second language, and Indian as a second language classes should be mandatory in all BIA schools and in schools contracting with BIA.

8. Road systems and maintenance must be expanded immediately.

9. As is the policy for overseas schools operated by the Department of Defense, BIA and Indian schools should be *at least* equal to those in the rest of the nation, even if additional supplements by BIA to ensure equality of educational opportunity are necessary.

10. The BIA should begin to cover noninstructional costs of public school systems on Indian reservations, including:

    a. Salary supplements to attract qualified teachers.

    b. Housing costs for teachers and other school employees.

    c. Retirement costs of teachers.

    d. Maintenance of present services in dormitories on or near public school campuses.

    e. Costs of new housing and other construction prior to closing BIA facilities or contracts with peripheral schools.

    f. Road construction and improvement and maintenance of school buses.

11. Employment rights of educational staff involved in transfer of BIA facilities to public schools should be recognized and protected.

12. The BIA should, in any case, be removed from the Interior Department.

LEGISLATION AND FUNDING

1. Building programs must begin now to accommodate future increases in Indian students to be served in reservation schools, and funds must be appropriated, whether through release of current appropriations, new state and/or federal legislation, or diversion of monies in other programs.

2. Indian children are entitled to services provided all other state citizens; it is unconscionable that any supplementary funds supplied through federal or other sources could be subtracted from state support to school districts serving Indian students.

3. State support and revenue from other sources should be maintained at a level that will permit JOM and Title funds to be used only as supplementary resources as intended in legislation.

4. Arizona's 7% limitation on increases in school budgets must be removed immediately on all school districts, and especially on districts serving Indian students, both to account for inflation and to permit services to move to the schools.

5. Under no circumstances should money to Indian schools from supplementary programs be reduced or in any way impact the level of state support, either in terms of state ADM payments or the 7% limitation.

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6. Allocations by the state for instructional purposes, including teacher salaries and benefits, should be standardized *prior* to school district receipt of funds from external sources.

7. Tax revenues from property located on an Indian reservation should be solely available to tribal governments, and diversions of taxes from counties or districts off reservations should not be permitted to have an impact on services to Indian students.

8. Regional materials centers funded under Title VII should be coordinated with existing and future materials development centers run by tribal groups, which should also receive adequate Title VII support to maintain indigenous, community-based development programs. In any case, existing programs should not suffer because of any move toward regionalization, and Indian persons, with governance input from tribal groups being served, should control any regional centers involved in developing Indian materials.

9. Where tribal governments, tribal education committees, or other authorized Indian groups desire, federal and state funding should go directly to public school districts serving Indian students rather than through county and/or state agencies. The existing superimposed administrative units at county, state, and regional levels are inefficient, and the process of getting resources to students must be streamlined.

10. Interest earned on monies allocated to school districts but retained for any period of time by state agencies should be returned to the districts or the state should underwrite any interest cost on monies borrowed by school districts in anticipation of release of previously allocated funds.

11. State law should be amended to permit lease/purchase agreement by districts to permit anticipated necessary building and housing expansion following approval by the Arizona Department of Education.

12. Depending on the desires of Indian groups, boundaries for local education agencies should be coterminous with reservation boundaries regardless of county or state boundaries. If such adjustment were to cause any change in student attendance, districts previously receiving Indian students should be required to accept students from the same areas for an indefinite period, at least until adequate and satisfactory facilities have been provided under control of the appropriate tribal groups. (The Navajo reservation, which extends into four states, could reasonably be designated as a single school district under federal jurisdiction and not within the jurisdiction of any state department of education or state regulations, should the Navajos themselves desire.)

13. Non-Indian public schools and individual school administrators in those districts should be held accountable for the provision of appropriate and equal educational opportunity for and the protection of the rights of Indian students attending those schools, especially where those schools receive JOM, Title I, or other funds intended to provide compensatory or supplementary services for those students.

14. Workshops should be provided to train Indian parents, tribal officials, advisory committee members, and educators in major impact districts in program development, content and intent of federal and state legislation, and procedures for obtaining and maintaining effective community involvement. Such workshops should be available at chapter, district, and village levels on larger reservations as well as to each of the smaller reservations in Arizona.

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15. An Indian Trust Council Authority should be established so as to provide independent legal counsel and representation for the preservation and protection of the natural resource rights of Indians. Although such a proposal has been delayed in the Senate Interior Committee at the federal level, a corresponding authority could also reasonably be established in the state of Arizona.

16. The prevalence of temporary, outmoded, and inadequate education facilities in many reservation schools is abhorrent to any person's sense of decency. Sufficient funds should be provided and relased under P.L. 815 or enabling legislation passed and implemented immediately so that decent and adequate schools comparable to those in any district in the country can be constructed as quickly as possible. Funds for such construction should also be provided retroactively so as to make up for neglect in past years.

17. Funds to construct boarding facilities and dormitories on or near public school campuses should be provided immediately so that construction can begin in anticipation of the desirable elimination and/or reduction of BIA-operated boarding schools and reduction or elimination of contracts for the education of Indian students with peripheral school districts.

18. Teacher housing and other non-instructional costs of major impact districts should be supported through BIA or state allocations not included in determination of school district general budgets.

19. The system of categorical aids should be reviewed and modified as necessary to reduce the role of grantsmanship in obtaining basic financial support and to evaluate the effects of categorical programs in segregating students and differentiating learning abilities on the basis of arbitrary and inappropriate standards, including standardized tests.

20. Direct and timely allocation of appropriated funds should be provided directly to districts without delay at state or county levels.

21. The BIA should contract directly with districts for supplementary programs under JOM.

22. As new JOM regulations are enforced, there should be a phase-out period to permit adjustments to the new rules in major impact districts, with funding based on previous allocations so that drastic reductions in services and income can be avoided.

23. JOM and other regulations should be consistently enforced in BIA district office and among the states.

24. Allocations for teacher retirement should be covered through passage of special state legislation that would remove such costs from the instructional budgets of local school districts.

25. The Office of Indian Education in the Arizona Department of Education should be more adequately staffed and financed through state funds so as to be able to serve all Indians in Arizona both on and off the reservation.

26. Special status under JOM and the BIA should be granted to the Yaquis in Phoenix and Tucson, especially for children born in this country.

27. The "Band Analysis" system used in determining priority fundings in JOM allocations in major impact districts should be rescinded.

28. JOM and other funding, including state allocations, should in no circumstances be conditioned by the presence of tax-exempt land on the reservations.

29. Under no circumstances should JOM funds be used or required to supplant funds that should be provided under other state or federal programs.

30. Legislation should require that parent advisory committees established under the various federal programs should have veto power over actions of local school boards with respect to those programs.

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NEGLECT IN THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT CHILDREN

> Is there any hope for the children of the road? Is it possible, after all, to harbor any optimism about what will happen to them?
>
> It would be easy to say no. The children of America's migrant farm workers are born into some of the worst poverty in this country. Their family income averages $ 400 a year and many, of course, make far less. But that's only the beginning of the afflictions of the children who live behind "the tarpaper curtain." They also suffer from illnesses such as rickets, scurvy, pinworm, nutritional anemia, acute febrile tonsillitis, and a dangerous protein deficiency known as kwashiorkor.[1]

There are over 500,000 migrant children in the United States and their lives are a "cycle of uprootedness and frustration."[2] For any child, the process of switching to a new school has significant effects. When this is compounded by four moves a year, the deprivations of poverty, and an exceptionally high incidence of disease, it is not surprising that over 60 percent of migrant students never complete high school.

Lack of continuity in the migrant child's education is a serious problem. The scant formal education a migrant child receives is sporadic. When the child enters school after the commencement of the academic year and leaves early to suit the seasonal nature of his parent's employment, he is unable to adjust to any one classroom environment or to establish lasting relationships with teachers and classmates. The child is socially ostracized and regarded as an outsider and a disruptive factor. When a child attends several schools a year and is unable to remain in one school long enough to learn the subjects being taught, the result for the child is frustration and failure; he becomes confused and ultimately disinterested in learning. Predictably, migrant children perform well below average on standardized achievement tests and rapidly fall behind grade level. It is not surprising to find several children from the same family placed in the same classroom or grade—although their ages may range from six or seven, to twelve or thirteen. It is, in short, virtually impossible for the migrant child to feel secure, to develop self-esteem or to have any self-confidence in a constantly shifting school environment, where he is constantly regarded as an "outsider."

The Barrier of Language

> Usually they hardly know the language of the country they are passing through. The Mexican American from the Rio Grande Valley is a foreigner in Michigan. So is the southern Negro in eastern Long Island.
>
> Their minds and their spirits are the very personification of cultural isolation.[3]

Approximately 75 percent of migrant children are Mexican Americans and do not speak or understand any English. Obviously, this language barrier presents a handicap when the school expects all of its students to function in English. Relatively few teachers of migrant children have bilingual training; as a result of this situation, some migrant children never learn anything in school. The failure of the schools to surmount this barrier of language is revealed in a report of the first extensive investigation of the conditions of migrant education, published in 1971, by the National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children:

> In one elementary school, 90 children a day met in small groups for half-hour classes in English as a second language. A nearby elementary school had its own FM radio station to broadcast programs in Spanish and English to parents. However, neither of these schools was equipped for a modern bi-lingual approach to language instruction. In both, school staff members—including the county director of migrant education—were heard to admonish children to "speak English" in school; a consultant reported that in one school a Spanish-speaking teacher was prohibited from speaking Spanish with the children.

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> A junior high school in the same county had a considerable number of Spanish-speaking students; an observer learned that some of them had been in the school for three years without learning English. There was no program to teach them English or to give them a foundation in the Spanish language and culture. A Spanish language class existed, but it was not open to Spanish-speaking students.[4]

Schooling: A Process of Relentless Regression

> . . .They average a 4th or 5th grade education and the only reason most of them go that far is the practice of "social advancement,' which means, "Why hold them back? They aren't going to learn anything no matter what grade they're in."[5]

As school work becomes more abstract and reading becomes more important, the migrant child falls farther behind. School becomes a constant source of embarrassment and failure, and the child becomes progressively more alienated. He usually responds by withdrawing from school activities and dropping out of school as soon as possible.

For most migrant children, the hardship of even getting to the school is an almost insurmountable barrier to their getting an education. Of necessity, these children develop a sense of responsibility at an early age: It is not unusual for a migrant child to stay home from school in order to babysit with younger children while the parents are out working. In order to contribute to the family income, children as young as six go to work in the fields (after school or *instead* of school) where they are exposed to dangerous machinery and pesticides. There are few child labor laws for agricultural workers. The federal minimum age of 16 is in effect only during school hours. Moreover, the federal law is frequently evaded or unenforced for migrant children. The problem of migrant children's non-enrollment in school is revealed in the following excerpts from the report of the National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children:

> From interviews with migrants and persons who work with migrants in the area, it appears that the school's estimate of 3,300 migrant children is much too low. Some interviews suggest that the school is probably serving less than 20 or 25% of the migrant children in the five-county area! School officials appeared to be unaware of the fact that many migrant children reside in places other than the Migrant Family Centers. School bus service did not reach such areas. From spot checking, it appears that families living outside migrant family service centers are in greater need, but they had little contact with services of the migrant education project.
>
> (A summer visit to a California five-county region)

> When there is work, the 16-year-old son must work. When work is good, the 12- and 13-year-old daughters must go to work also to make money for next year. However, when there is no work, all three go to the summer school and get the benefit of the meals. The girls say that all they do at this summer school is throw paint and color pictures.
>
> (A migrant family with five children)

> . . . .the county coordinator of migrant education said the compulsory attendance law was not rigidly enforced with migrants. As coordinator he tries to maintain a liberal view on this and asks his people not to be too "hard nosed" about it. "If there is sufficient evidence that the children really needed help to earn enough money to support the family," he said, "we sort of let them slide." After all we want to encourage people to assume more responsibility for themselves and members of their families, rather than having them sit around waiting for a handout."[16]
>
> (A school-year visit to a Florida school)

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The Migrant Parent: Uninvolved and Unconsulted by the Schools

> . . .hostility is nothing new to the migrant. He has been dulled by a lifetime of losing jobs and never being sure about getting the next one. The American virtues of success and ambition mean nothing to him because there is little chance they will do him any good.[7]

Many migrant parents have had only negative experiences in their own public school education; and the very hardship of their own lives is painful evidence that the schools gave them little of value. Understandably, migrant parents often have little knowledge about the schools their children attend; inevitably, they are hesitant and inhibited in attempting to make any contact with the school. And even if they attempt to overcome their inhibitions and visit the schools or consult with the teachers, there is no time: all of their daylight hours are devoted to work in order to survive.

Signs of Hope for the Future

> There are no quick answers to migrant education, but migrant children all over the country are benefiting from further consolidation of the national effort. . . .[8]

There is evidence that the nation and some of its communities are beginning to recognize and meet the challenge of migrant education. The NEA Project Neglect on-site study in Arizona—one state that has done more than many others to meet this challenge—provided such evidence. The achievements of the school districts visited in Arizona could not have taken place, however, without the assistance of the federal government through such programs as those described below.

The Migrant Student Record Transfer System The establishment of the Uniform Student Record Transfer System was a major step toward a coordinated approach to the education of migrant children. This system is a computerized communications network that provides a school with vital information on new migrant students in a few hours. In 1970 this central data bank in Little Rock, Arkansas, was established to compile the records of all migrant children, and by July 1971, all 48 mainland states were participating in the system. This system can provide a complete academic and medical history of any migrant child in four hours.

Basically the system works as follows: When a migrant child enters a school for the first time, his/her name, sex, birth date, and birthplace are fed into the central computer via special phonelines and teletype machines at one of 300 terminals throughout the country. The computer returns basic data about the student, including his scores on standardized reading and mathematics tests, pertinent medical facts, and an individual student identification number. Once the school receives this identification number, it can request a full record of the child's entire school career, consisting of academic characteristics and basic background information.[9] To date, this system is one of the greatest contributions to the education of migrants. It facilitates continuity in a migrant child's education by informing the school of the student's previous educational background, and thus assists the school in placing the child at the appropriate level.

Recently four federal programs have been enacted in an attempt to alleviate some of the other educational problems that migrant children encounter.

Migrant Title I The purpose of the Migrant Title I program is "to identify and meet the specific educational needs of migrant children through: remedial instruction;

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health, nutritional and psychological services; cultural development; and pre-vocational training and counseling. Special attention in instructional programs is given to the development of the language arts, including reading, speaking, and writing in both English and Spanish."[10]

Bilingual Education Act The Bilingual Education Act is the result of a federal effort to deal with the language problem of non-English speaking students. Funds are provided to school districts "to develop and carry out new and imaginative elementary and secondary school programs designed to meet the needs of large groups of people with limited English speaking ability." Although there is no specific provision in the Act for migrant children, money is appropriated where there exists a high concentration of non-English speaking children in a school district.

Day Care and Head Start The Migrant Division of the Department of Labor currently allocates $1.8 million to Day Care programs for migrant children. These programs provide care for infants and young children of agricultural workers who must work long hours each day.

The Office of Child Development administers Head Start Programs. Three million dollars were allocated for Head Start programs for Indian and Migrant children in 1973. These programs are designed to enroll only those children between the ages of four and five with one exception: in the absence of day care programs for younger children, Head Start facilities must include younger siblings of enrolled children. In 1973, approximately 7,000 migrant children were enrolled in Head Start programs. Many centers use a specially developed bilingual/bicultural preschool curriculum to meet the unique needs of migrant children.

The key to breaking out of the cycle of migrancy is the acquisition of a good education. These programs, designed to eliminate some of the educational problems of migrant children are relatively new; the ultimate effectiveness cannot be ascertained at this time. However, expansion of these programs to include larger numbers of migrant children would seem necessary to meet the avowed purposes of these programs.

The On-Site Investigation

The recent on-site investigation of migrant education in Arizona, conducted with the assistance of the Arizona Education Association, focused on three schools that had been selected for visitation.

A Demonstration Project

In 1967, the state of Arizona received limited funds (under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act) specifically for migrant education, and the Dysart Elementary School of Peoria, Arizona, was selected as a demonstration project. Dysart, one of the schools visited, had a highly sophisticated migrant education program. For example, a migrant education director was employed. The director played an important part in coordinating all the various aspects of the program. Administrators, teachers, and people in the community participated in planning and implementing the program. Although inservice training programs for teachers of migrant children were not mandatory, those teachers who did participate were found to have gained a greater insight and sensitivity with regard to migrant children, and consequently were able to more effectively implement programs that met the special needs of migrant children. The utilization of teacher aides who had bilingual/bicultural background was particularly beneficial.

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Bilingual programs are in the initial stage at Dysart elementary school. In the past, English as a Second Language (ESL) programs were used exclusively. Recently the state has allocated funds for bilingual projects, and it is hoped that these necessary bilingual programs will be implemented on a larger scale.

At Dysart, provisions are made for the migrant child's physical and mental well-being by including dental, medical, nutritional (free breakfast and lunch programs to children who qualify), and psychological services which help the child reach his/her potential. Educational facilities and materials at Dysart are excellent, and physical education, art, and music programs are offered.

Dysart has used the Migrant Student Record Transfer System extensively. The system has not only been effective in placing migrant children, but has also been invaluable in furnishing important information regarding the child's complete medical history and records of innoculations.

Yuma County Schools

The other two schools that were visited have not yet reached the same level of achievement as Dysart. Fourth Avenue Junior High School of Yuma, Arizona, has recently begun to address itself to the educational problems that migrant children experience and they are in the initial and planning stages in developing programs. Wellton Elementary School of Yuma County, Arizona, has passed through this initial stage, but has not yet reached the level of progress which Dysart has attained.

Dysart, Wellton, and Fourth Avenue Junior High have identified problems that need to be ameliorated in order for migrant children to receive a quality education. While progress has been made in improving educational programs for migrant children in each of the three schools, Perez and Gonzalez found limitations in several areas:

1. Frequently migrant children have been misclassified as retarded. In most cases this mistake could have been avoided if the children had been given bilingual/bicultural tests. It is essential for legislation to be enacted to insure that migrant children will be given these tests, administered by bilingual psychologists, teachers, or aides.

2. English as a Second Language (ESL) programs should be replaced with bilingual programs.

3. Teacher training programs must be expanded either through cooperation with colleges and universities or through mandatory inservice training programs. The utilization of teacher aides should be continued and expanded with major emphasis on recruiting migrants.

Arizona is a state that has decided to focus on migrant education, giving it priority. This is one reason that the Arizona committee in migrant education permitted the Project Neglect Team to look at their present program and evaluate its strengths and weaknesses. This group will be able to play a major role in NEA's commitment to eliminate neglect in the education of migrant children.

The NEA Program Plan for Migrant Workers

The following action on migrant workers was taken by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association (NEA) at their Philadelphia Convention in 1969.

"The National Education Association concerns itself with the plight of our nation's 2 million migrant workers involved in a difficult struggle for human dignity and self-respect. The Association is especially concerned about the education of the children of migrant parents who are literally being forced to drop out of school to work in the fields in order to help support their families.

The NEA, cognizant of the need for negotiation as a vehicle to better economic security and working conditions and ever mindful of the deplorable effect upon children who deserve equal educational opportunity—such as is afforded the more affluent children of American society—commits itself to support the attempts of the migrant workers of America to attain negotiation agreements with their employers.

"The NEA calls upon its local, state, and regional affiliates to fully support the migrant workers' struggle for equal treatment."

—New Business Item 11
Philadelphia Convention

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The Program Plan for Migrant Workers was adopted by the NEA Board of Directors in May of 1974. The goal of the NEA program plan for migrant workers is

to cooperate and coordinate with, and to provide support to, national, state and local efforts for improving the educational and economic opportunities of migrant workers.

Quite obviously, attempting to fill adequately the many needs of migrants would consume many times the annual revenue of the combined United Teaching Profession, let alone the NEA itself. It therefore becomes necessary to focus in as sharply as possible upon the most effective and efficient ways in which the NEA and its affiliates may aid the cause of migrant families.

Summary

Association activities to achieve the project goal will encompass legislative and non-legislative means at national, state, and local levels. Both types of approaches—legislative and non-legislative—will be directed toward increasing educational opportunity as well as toward achieving negotiation agreements.

The basic plan to achieve the objectives within the capability of the National Education Association, entails several strategies in which the association might engage:

- The NEA will *lead* in performing such activities that it alone can carry out best.
- The NEA will *stimulate* and *coordinate* efforts among national, state, and local components of the United Teaching Profession.
- The NEA will *motivate, join with,* and *support* appropriate activities of other agencies and organizations at the national level—and *encourage* its state and local affiliates to do likewise.
- The NEA will *coordinate* fund raising efforts among its affiliates and allocate such funds in a manner designed to achieve maximum possible results.

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Within the internal structure of NEA many, if not all, program and support components of the association will be called upon to conduct activities designed to accomplish the project goal.

FOOTNOTES

[1]U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Children at the Crossroad.* U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1970. p. 1.

[2]National Education Association, *Program Plan for Migrant Workers.* in Agenda, Board of Directors, May 3-5, 1974, p. 52. The Association: Washington, D.C.

[3]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Op Cit.* p. 1.

[4]National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children, *Wednesday's Children.* A Report on Programs Funded Under the Migrant Amendment to Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act. The Committee: New York, N.Y. 1971., p. 36.

[5]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Op Cit.* p. 1.

[6]National Committee on the Education of Migrant Children, *Op Cit.* pp. 24-26.

[7]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Op Cit.* p. 12.

[8]*Ibid.* p. 41.

[9]Migrant Legal Action Program–Monthly Report, April 1974, Volume 3, No. 4.

[10]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Migrant Children Under ESEA Title I.* U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971, p. 4.

[11]20 U.S.C., sec. 880b.

p. 38 Rusk

OUT OF SIGHT, OUT OF MIND: JUVENILES IN DETENTION FACILITIES

Introduction

The juvenile justice system in the United States processes the cases of approximately 1,000,000 children each year. Of those, about 100,000 children are incarcerated in juvenile institutions. About half of these incarcerated children are institutionalized on the basis of "status offenses." Status offenses include truancy, running away from home, ungovernability, and being in need of supervision. Children determined to be in need of supervision are often those who have no suitable home and who reach the juvenile justice system simply because they are neglected.

Juveniles account for almost half of the arrests for serious crime in the United States today. Crime by young offenders has increased tremendously during the past 10 years. Violent crimes by persons under 18 has risen 167 percent. Over the same period, property crimes, such as burglary, larceny, and auto theft by youths under 18 has increased by 89 percent. People under 25 years of age account for 59 percent of all crimes of violence and 81 percent of all property crimes.[1]

The cost of maintaining the juvenile justice system is approximately one billion dollars a year, and is increasing at a rate of $50 million a year.[2] The most expensive and wasteful part of the system is the institution where juveniles are placed. The average time spent in an institution is 10 months. The average operating expenditure is nearly $6,000 per person, as compared with halfway houses which cost $1,500 per youth, or probation services which cost $500 per youth.[3]

Most juvenile institutions do not differentiate among offenders. Murderers, rapists, drug abusers, truants, and runaways are placed together in the same institution. Young offenders often learn from the more experienced. Thus, a 14-year-old boy incarcerated for possession of marijuana may leave six months later with a new wealth of knowledge, e.g., how to steal a car or rob a bank. This learning process, which is indigenous to all large institutions, results in an institution being known as a "college of crime."

The destructive process of incarcerating runaways is disproportionate to their offense. In the detention center they come into contact with homosexual attacks, brutal beatings, and other deplorable situations. Moreover, when they are released, the family and personal problems which precipitated their running away have not been remedied, and their experience has made them more susceptible to criminal activity.

Institutions for children have many names: training schools, detention centers, reformatories, and guidance centers. Regardless of the name, they are large, isolated, obsolete security-oriented facilities without meaningful programs. Children are locked away in severely overcrowded prisons (40 percent of the country's institutions are overcrowded).[4]

In 1973, the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency[5] learned of the rampant homosexuality and brutality that exist in juvenile institutions. Some youths protesting against prison conditions engaged in severe self-mutilation. Incidents of demonstrating inmates shot by guards were also reported. Many juveniles are physically and sexually mistreated not only by other inmates but also by incompetent employees of the institution. There are deficiencies in the competency and number of staff in juvenile detention centers. The ratio of youths to counselors and psychologists is very poor; the professionals who are employed, because of their large caseloads, are able to be of little, if any, assistance to the youths.

Every year that a juvenile is kept in an institution without adequate training, adequate education, and rehabilitation increases the likelihood that upon release he/she will be a liability and a danger to society. The recidivism among juveniles is more widespread than among adult offenders:[6] recividism for adults is estimated at 40-70 percent; recividism for youths is estimated at 74-85 percent.

No matter how much the institutions vary, these generalizations can be applied to almost all of them:

1. Reform schools are expensive. "It has been shown that it costs as much to keep one juvenile in an institution for one year as it would cost to send him to the most prestigious prep school with enough left over for a $100 a month allowance, psychiatric and medical care, and a summer trip to Europe."[7]

2. Reform schools are populated by children of the poor; generally Blacks, Puerto Ricans, and Chicanos. A Massachusetts survey taken before the state abolished all reform schools indicates that 90 percent of the youths came from homes which received or were eligible to receive public assistance

3. These institutions are not providing good educational programs. The so-called industrial and training schools teach obsolete skills or skills that will keep the youths at the bottom of the financial and social scale.

4. Professional personnel are generally of a low caliber. When private practice is more remunerative, it is difficult to attract high-caliber doctors, psychologists, and psychiatrists to juvenile centers. The same can be said for teachers and guards employed in the institutions.

5. Studies show that the recidivism rate among youth is directly proportionate to the amount of time they spend in the institution. If a youth spends six months or less, he has a chance to lead a productive life once released. However, if he spends several years or more, it is likely that most of his life will be spent in jail.[8]

The existence of these problems led the state of Massachusetts to investigate its reform schools. This 1969 study showed a recidivism rate of over 80 percent, and uncovered many horror stories too similar to be the result of vivid imaginations. Moreover, there was a high rate of attempted escapes, and a finding of excessive brutality among guards and other personnel. The annual cost of institutionalizing one child ran as high as $11,500. In one New York training school the cost exceeded $17,000.[9] Most of this money was used for maintaining the physical plant and for salaries of the staff, many of whom were nonprofessional. As a result of this investigation, Massachusetts became the first (and, as of this writing, the only) state to abolish reform schools. The reform school concept has been replaced by a system where children are returned to local communities and placed in treatment programs to meet their personal needs. While this system has not proven to be a panacea, it is a significant achievement.

In 1824 New York authorized the first juvenile detention facility, named the House of Refuge.[10] These and other facilities developed to treat children away from adult prisons have been called places of rehabilitation and treatment. In fact, the legislation creating and maintaining these institutions generally states that the institutions will provide rehabilitation, treatment, and education for the children who are placed therein. This paper will examine the treatment of children who are incarcerated in some of these institutions.

Although this paper is designed to examine educational neglect, no evaluation of the education of incarcerated children would be complete without attention to the living conditions in institutions in which the education takes place. It is, in fact, doubtful that education *can* take place under the oppressive and dehumanizing conditions described in this report—and these conditions are not unusual; they exist in many of the nation's institutions for the young.

A Day in the Life of a Juvenile Institution

As a beginning point, a description of the daily routine for institutionalized persons may give some feeling of what it is like to be incarcerated.

1. At sunrise the children are warned, by the ringing of a bell, to rise from their beds. Each child makes his own bed and steps forth, on a signal, into the Hall. They then proceed, in perfect order, to the Wash Room. Thence they are marched to parade in the Yard and undergo an examination as to their dress and cleanliness; after which they attend morning prayer. The morning school then commences where they are occupied in summer until 7 o'clock. A short intermission is allowed, when the bell rings for breakfast; after which they proceed to their respective workshops where they labour until twelve o'clock when they are called from work and one hour is allowed them for washing and eating their dinner. At one, they again commence work and continue at it until five in the afternoon when the labours of the day terminate. Half an hour is allowed for washing and eating their supper, and at half past five they are conducted to the school room where they continue at their studies until 8 o'clock. Evening prayer is performed by the Superintendent after which the children are conducted to their dormitories which they enter and are locked up for the night when perfect silence reigns throughout the establishment. The foregoing is the history of a single day and will answer for every day in the year except Sundays with slight variations during stormy weather and the short days in Winter.

2. A raucous blast, the cell-house alarm clock, jars you awake at 6 A.M. Twenty minutes till the head count. You wash up at the cold-water tap, comb your hair, brush your teeth. (If sensitive, you might vary the routine by brushing your teeth first, or putting on your right shoe first, but as you wear into the set ways of an automaton you skip these small variations.)

   You get into the gray shirt, the gray trousers, the sturdy shoes. You make your bed, tidy up your cubicle, then take your position at the bars of your cell front. After the stand-up count, you hear the lieutenant call: "Ring in outside B!" A dozen cell doors slide open. You step out, march along the tier gallery, descend the circular steel stairway. As you approach the mess hall you remember and quickly button your collar. (This becomes automatic; an open collar at mess lands you in solitary.) You file past the steam table with a compartmented tray, picking up your breakfast—rolls, dry cereal and milk, coffee, and you know the day is Tuesday: menus are your calendar.

   Twenty minutes to eat. A whistle, you stand up; a whistle, you turn; a whistle, you check in your flatware and march out, up the winding stairway, along the tier, into your cell. Another count, then the command: "Ring out B!" Cells open, you march along the tier, down the circular stairs, through a metal detector into the yard. You stand on a yellow line until all convict workers come out. Then, "Brush shop!" You are checked off as you go through a gate, down a flight of steps in the cliffside to a landing, through another Snitch Box, down another flight, along a road to the shops.

   At 11:20, you come back up the road, back up the flights, back through the yard, back up the steel stairway, back along the tier, back into your cell.

   A head count, the lieutenant's command. You go along the tier, down the stairs, into the mess hall, eat, stand, turn, march back to your cell. The door clangs shut, stays shut for thirteen hours. At 9:30, your cell light winks out.

3. Q. What is an average day like? Tell me what you do from when you wake up?

A. Well, you wake up at five in the morning—quarter to five—come downstairs, half of us go to the bathroom, brush our teeth, then the other half goes. Then we sit down and watch TV. We don't eat till eight o'clock. Then school from eight-thirty to eleven-thirty, then we go eat. From one o'clock to four o'clock we stay in school. Then maybe watch a little TV. Summertime they make you get out in the sun and march like you're in the army or somethin'.

4. "Up at 6:30
Bathe
Clean rooms
Breakfast
Clean
School
Lunch
Clean
School
Bathe
Clean
Choir
Sleep"

The first description is of the New York House of Refuge in 1835.[11] The second is a description of a day at Alcatraz.[12] The third[13] and fourth[14] examples are from juvenile institutions in 1969.

Morales v. Turman

On September 3, 1974, the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Texas filed a memorandum decision and order in the case of *Morales* v. *Turman*.[15] This case involves conditions at juvenile facilities of the Texas Youth Council (TYC).

Although on-site investigations were conducted in other areas of educational neglect, the court's opinion in the *Morales* v. *Turman* case includes more information about the realities of juvenile detention than could be developed by an on-site investigation. That opinion, which is 204 pages long, is extracted for purposes of this report.

The appalling conditions of juvenile detention, as revealed in the court's findings, were not discovered as a result of parental complaints, staff complaints, or even because of public outrage at the reports from an ex-inmate. The court states:

> The genesis of this civil action was hardly dramatic. More than three years ago, this court granted a preliminary injunction sought by two young attorneys who were attempting to confer privately with their clients and communicate with them by uncensored mail. The extensive litigation outlined in this memorandum opinion has been the outgrowth.[16]

The absence of reports or complaints about juvenile institutions does not indicate that the same kinds of practices do not exist elsewhere, or that they are not efficiently hidden from any official investigators. The opinion describes the routine in the life of a child in these institutions.

> The most striking characteristic of daily life in most TYC institutions is overwhelming monotony and regimentation. At Gainesville the rooms are like cells; each is furnished only with a bed, a dresser, and a small cubicle for clothes. The doors have locks, as well as safety chains on the outside, that permit them to be opened about four inches when latched. The light switches are outside in the corridor. Girls may not use the restroom at night, but must relieve themselves in chamber pots.
>
> Some girls at Crockett have private rooms similar to those at Gainesville. In both institutions, girls with separate rooms are locked or latched in their rooms a greater part of the time before and after school and at night. During the time they are locked in, they must call out if they are sick or in need of assistance. Whether a girl is latched into her room often depends solely on the convenience of her housemother. At Brownwood, girls have keys to their own rooms, but can be locked in their rooms from the outside.

Girls who go from the relatively open physical setting at Brownwood to the latched doors of Crockett and Gainesville are not made aware of any reason for their being subjected to more rigorous confinement, with the result that most conclude that their behavior is only marginally related to the conditions of their confinement.

The justification given by the Gainesville staff psychologist for latching girls' doors was the impossibility of making individual decisions about who should or should not be latched in. He conceded that not all girls require such close confinement; his estimate was that twenty to fifty per cent of the girls need to be latched in.

Psychologists gave evidence that an across-the-board policy of locking girls in their rooms at specified times of the day is counter-rehabilitative; that it leaves the girls with the feeling that they are evil and untrustworthy, and incapable of planning and directing their own activities.

Meals are regimented at Crockett and Gainesville. Girls are ushered into the dining room to the calls of "East side," "West side," "let 'em out," "Put 'em up." The dishes are plastic. Meals are eaten quickly, and it is obligatory that conversations be quiet. Even the cook can order silence. At the end of the meal, the staff members demand that the girls sit with their hands in their laps while the silver is collected and counted.

Cottages contain a day room where the girls eat and seek recreation at specified times, usually for a two-hour period each evening and on weekends. Girls cannot leave their rooms except during specified periods of dining, recreation, or school, and cannot visit in each other's rooms. A certain amount of time each day is designated as "unsupervised recreation," but various restrictions imposed by institutional rules and houseparents make television, board games, and smoking the only real recreation possibilities. Dancing and other forms of physical expression are discouraged. In summary, cottage life makes the girls dependent on others for direction and discourages them from taking any initiative, structuring their own time, acting independently, or exercising imagination.

Life at the boys' institutions is even more regimented than at the girls' school. At Gatesville, it is mandatory that boys arise at a certain time; they then sit idly until breakfast. Often, some fall asleep while lying on tables and waiting for the signal to go to breakfast. They walk in loose formation to the dining room and school. Some correctional officers require silence on these walks.

Boys spend time in the dormitories lined up in chairs watching television programs. On one occasion, an expert witness observed nearly an entire dormitory of boys sitting torpidly before a broken television set. Several witnesses described the appearance and climate of the Gatesville dormitories as a "prison," a "psychologically destructive brutal setting." Mountain View was graphically described as an "evil place," and compared unfavorably with the notorious Angola Prison in Louisiana.

Institutional Indignities

According to expert witnesses, the program at Gainesville violates the girls' self-respect in many ways. The chamber pots in the girls' bedrooms are humiliating to them and violate such self-respect as they have managed to acquire. Girls are not allowed to walk around outside their rooms without permission. When the need arises, they are required to call, "Mama, can I go to the toilet?" No doors are placed on the toilets at Gainesville. Charts showing the menstrual period of each girl are posted in the housemother's office at Gainesville and on the cottage door at Crockett. Girls are subjected to "strip searches" of their bodies prior to family visits, and their rooms are torn up in unannounced searches.

There was uncontradicted testimony from one girl that she was called a "nigger" or "dog" by her houseparent at Gainesville every day, and heard the school principal call other girls by similar names. This girl also alleged that she was called "nigger" by her teacher in front of the whole class. When the girl reported the incident to the school principal, her humiliation was compounded when he told her that the teachers could call her whatever they wanted. It is also uncontradicted in the evidence that Black girls at Gainesville are forbidden to sit together at a meal table on penalty of a discipline report.

In one incident, certain girls at Gainesville were questioned and harassed by staff members for eight hours about alleged marijuana possession.

> Boys at Gatesville are deprived of privacy. They may go to the toilet only at certain times. If they fail to make their beds in a prescribed way, they are assessed demerits; if they do not get up fast enough in the morning, their beds are dumped over them. On occasion, a "dorm man" will shave a boy with a pocketknife if he is dissatisfied with the boy's appearance. Boys at Gatesville may have access to their books or personal possessions only at certain hours and then with permission; their possessions are often rummaged through by correctional officers without their knowledge or consent.[17]

In the report of the Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice,[18] a well informed penologist is quoted as saying:

> There are things going on, methods of discipline being used in the State training schools of this country that would cause a warden of Alcatraz to lose his job if he used them on his prisoners. There are practices that are a daily occurrence in some of our State training schools that are not permitted in the prisons or penitentiaries of the same States. There are many States in which this discipline is more humane, more reasonable in the prison than it is in the State training school.[19]

As you compare the regimentation of Alcatraz with that of the institutions for children, consider the fact that Alcatraz was designed to deal with the most difficult of adult male prisoners. It is now closed as a prison. And do not forget as you read that about half of the children in juvenile detention facilities are there as status offenders, children whose actions constitute no offense under criminal statute, and actions for which no adult could be incarcerated.

The opinion of the court in the *Morales* case describes the physical cruelty and disciplinary practices in the Texas juvenile facilities, prior to the court orders restricting actions against children.

Maximum Security Confinement:
Mountain View State School for Boys

> The Mountain View State School for Boys is the maximum security facility operated by the TYC. It is surrounded by two fences, both of which are topped with barbed wire. Prior to entry of this court's emergency interim relief order, a juvenile could be initially assigned to Mountain View on the basis that he had been adjudicated delinquent for a serious offense or he could be transferred there from one of the other TYC institutions for boys, usually Gatesville, as a result of a decision that his conduct was unsatisfactory. Thus, there were at least some boys incarcerated at Mountain View whose delinquent behavior consisted of such "status" offenses as truancy, incorrigibility, or running away from home.
>
> Mountain View's history, well known to the inmates of both Mountain View and Gatesville, has been one of brutality and repression. New boys placed at Mountain View are called "fresh fish," and are "tested" by various forms of physical abuse, applied by staff or other boys with the encouragement of staff. For example, one entering boy, identified as C.W., was initially beaten by the other boys in his cottage with the tacit approval of Correctional Officer Flores. Later that day, the boys who administered the beating were, in turn, "racked" by Flores—that is, forced to line up against the wall with their hands in their pockets while the correctional officer punched each one in the stomach. On the following day, while Correctional Officer Stovall watched, C.W. was hit and kicked by seven or eight boys in the corner of the cottage day room for more than an hour. After C.W. had been knocked unconscious, Stovall stopped further abuse, announcing that he did not want any "dead fish" on his hands.
>
> Staff brutality at Mountain View is not ignored, but by precept and example encouraged, by those in authority. It was in evidence, for instance, that Assistant Superintendent Mack Morris slapped one boy in the face for talking in the superintendent's office. The evidence was also uncontradicted that the school principal slapped another boy in the face, back, and head for speaking Spanish. The Supervisor of Correctional Officers, Joe Gail Sassy, is notorious for his abuse. In one incident, Sassy called Correctional Officer Foster on the phone and directed him to send down a boy named "Slut"

(M.A.). The boy went to Sassy's office and returned shortly thereafter with swollen eyes and jaw, blaming Sassy. In another case, Sassy called a boy out of his cottage for not reporting on time. When the boy returned from Sassy's office, his face was swollen and one eye was almost closed. In still another incident, Sassy broke up a fight between R.J. and H.C.; he then "racked" R.J. for approximately twenty minutes and R.C. for about four minutes.

The use of tear gas on boys during the period preceding entry of this court's emergency interim relief order was widespread. Many of the instances involving tear gas were the subject of "incident reports," which are designed to record instances of the use of physical force by both inmates and staff of TYC. One such incident report, dated January 13, 1971, and identified by Clarence Stephens, Casework Supervisor at Mountain View, reported that one, M.F., threw down his pick and started running from a work detail. The boy was placed in the STC, and, for shouting, was afterward subjected to tear gas in his cell. Stephens identified incident reports of April 19 and 20, 1973, reporting that tear gas was used on one, B.L., with the permission of Assistant Superintendent Morris, when the boy refused to work and threatened to run. After being administered tear gas, the boy was examined at the hospital and then returned to a work detail. The next day, when B.L. again tried to run away and was apprehended, Morris once more gave assent to tear gas being used on the boy.[20]

Dormitories One and Nine at Mountain View are designated as "punk" dormitories, and are regarded by inmates and staff as the homosexual dormitories. Dormitory One has "homosexual" Black students; Dormitory Nine has only Anglo and Mexican American "homosexual" students. Prior to entry of this court's emergency order, boys were placed in these dormitories for having "homosexual tendencies," because they were "pressured" by other boys, or "didn't get along in the other dorms." The correctional officers, who are the least qualified and least educated of the staff and who have no special training in this regard, made these placement decisions. The Gatesville school psychiatrist Dr. Charles Smith, never criticized such segregation to his superiors. The Mountain View Casework Supervisor, Clarence Stephens, although not critical of the practice, conceded that it "might be detrimental and not therapeutic."

Expert witnesses were unanimous in concluding, however, that such labeling is inappropriate, destructive, and often inaccurate, because some experimentation with the same sex by adolescents is normal. Experts also testified that such labeling and segregation strips a child of his individual identity, does much to force him to homosexuality as a permanent mode of sexual expression, and is, therefore, extremely anti-therapeutic.

Employment practices, including staff interviews and meetings, were not aimed at curbing staff brutality. Standards for use of force were not presented to staff. Evidence indicated that it was useless to report brutality to supervisors, and one former staff member was reluctant to report on conditions for fear of being "blacklisted" from other state jobs.

Expert witnesses testified that it is very difficult, even with a conscientious staff, to detect brutality in a large institution. Although the most reliable source for such charges is inmate complaints, many inmates who first report brutality will often retract their reports. New or emotionally disturbed students, not knowledgeable in the ways of the institution, sometimes will "blurt out" instances of brutality. Dr. Jerome Miller, a particularly well-qualified expert, contended that such allegations should be investigated, even when the student later disclaims the charge. Dr. Miller explained that "most allegations, not all but certainly most, and virtually all of the serious allegations that come to us from young people, ultimately turn out to have some sound basis in fact and in reality."

Girls' Institutions

Although brutality in the girls' institutions did not appear to be as widespread as that in the boys' at the time this court entered its emergency order, some instances of physical abuse were nevertheless present. Some incidents occurred in school, *e.g.*, one Gainesville girl was slapped hard by her teacher after she threw her book on the desk; another was struck by one of the school principals. Some of the physical abuse was administered by houseparents, referred to sometimes as "papa" or "mama." A Crockett girl observed "Papa" Watson grab a girl by her hair and throw her into a STC cell. Another girl was similarly assaulted by "Papa" Watson when she did not sit down quickly; on four occasions, this same girl was injured when struck with an eighteen-inch key chain by "Mama" Watson.

While the treatment of children in the Texas institutions demonstrates what can happen to incarcerated children, many institutions deal with children in a more humane fashion. However, do not assume that this is true. Practices in an institution for girls in Colorado in 1969 include removing a seventeen year old girl's clothing in the presence of a maintenance man and handcuffing her wrists behind her back after which her feet were tied to the handcuffs and she was left in this position for four or five hours.[21] Other instances of cruel treatment of children have been documented in New York,[22] Louisiana,[23] California,[24] and Illinois.[25]

Beyond the brutality previously cited, children in juvenile detention facilities are often subjected to the use of drugs which cause modification of behavior, sometimes administered and prescribed by persons who are unqualified to do so and who are equally unqualified to deal with the side effects and other problems associated with the administration of such medicines.[26]

Many institutions have grossly inadequate psychological services and those who perform social work are generally overburdened by huge caseloads.[27] Compounding the problem is the fact that social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists, housemothers, housefathers, teachers, nurses and physicians do not necessarily discuss or even have knowledge of each others' plans for or treatment of individual children.[28] Children's physical condition is often made worse by poor diet and lack of recreation.[29]

Academic Education

What kind of education—teaching or learning—can go on in these conditions of incarceration? Almost none, as evidenced by the court's findings.

The expert witnesses opined that only four and six-tenths percent of all juveniles incarcerated by the TYC were at their proper educational grade level, and that the average reading level was approximately five years below the norm. The court stated:

> Although each TYC institution has been accorded the status of an independent school district by the Texas Education Agency, and each has been accredited by that agency, the quality of TYC education, particularly at Gatesville and Gainesville, compares unfavorably with the quality of general public school education in Texas, and reflects a dramatic lack of wareness of the special and varied needs of TYC students.
>
> All school facilities are operated eleven months of the year except Mountain View, which is operated on a twelve-month basis. Students at Gatesville are placed in academic grade assignments according to the results of their achievement tests. Grades are labeled one through twelve, and a student is often assigned to a grade lower than the one at which he may have been functioning in his home community. At Brownwood, in contrast, students below the ninth grade in achievement level are placed in non-graded classes, according to age, and receive individual instruction.
>
> No teacher at Gatesville or Gainesville is certified by the Texas Education Agency as qualified in the field of special education. Mountain View and Crockett each has one teacher certified for special education, and Brownwood has two. A statistical survey indicates, however, that a significant number of juveniles are in need of some form of special education. The following numbers of children at TYC institutions were diagnosed as being seriously emotionally disturbed as of May 1, 1973:
>
> | | |
> |---|---|
> | Giddings | 18 |
> | Gatesville | 117 |
> | Mountain View | 158 |
> | Brownwood | 13 |
> | Crockett | 35 |
> | Gainesville | 31 |

The category defined as "seriously emotionally disturbed" excludes sociopathic and psychopathic children. In addition, as of May 1, 1973, the following numbers of children in TYC institutions have intelligence quotients recorded as lower than seventy:

Brownwood	17
Crockett	38
Gainesville	11
Giddings	5
Gatesville	102
Mountain View	36

The Language Training Center at Gatesville, for students with learning disabilities, currently serves those students whose diagnostic tests indicate this program to be appropriate for their needs; however, only students with intelligence quotients over ninety and who test two years below their grade level may participate in the program. Moreover, tests are not routinely given for minimal brain dysfunction or dyslexia at the classification center.

No bilingual programs for Spanish-speaking youths exist in any of the TYC institutions. Two applications for federal assistance to initiate such a program have been denied, and no state funds have been appropriated to institute the program. Tests of Spanish-speaking boys for intelligence quotients and reading achievement are not conducted in Spanish. At Gatesville, eighty-eight of a total of 106 teachers are Anglo. Questionably, as many as ten Gatesville teachers speak Spanish, although only two are Mexican Americans. Of the more than 1,000 students at Gatesville, approximately one-third are Anglo, over one-third are Black, and the remainder are Mexican American. In April 1973, there were thirty Mexican Nationals at Gatesville, awaiting return to Mexico by immigration authorities.

The educational testing procedures are generally inadequate, and since decisions regarding placement of students in educational programs at Gatesville are made primarily on the basis of the test scores, this is a significant deficiency. Irrespective of the reason, any Gatesville boy who cannot read is placed in the same remedial reading class. Thus, Spanish-speaking boys, retarded children, and those who are unable to read because of emotional causes or past truancy are placed in the same class. As mentioned earlier, these classes are not taught by persons certified as qualified in the field of special education. Moreover, tests for Spanish-speaking boys who may have learning disabilities and thus may be eligible for the class for dyslexic children are not given in Spanish.

Conclusions

On the basis of the evidence produced by experts with respect to academic education testing, it is concluded that a juvenile's right to treatment requires the maintenance of the following minimal professional standards:

1) The Weschler IQ Test, rather than the Lorge-Thorndike IQ Test, must be used for testing generally.

2) Neither the Lorge-Thorndike IQ Test nor the Gray-Votew Rogers Achievement Test, which is inappropriate for testing Mexican Americans and Blacks on many subjects, should be used for testing for dyslexia.

Using as a foundation the evidence of expert witnesses, it is concluded that, for the purpose of detecting mental retardation in juveniles and providing them with the proper special education, the juvenile's right to treatment requires the maintenance of the following minimal professional standards:

1) Normal IQ and achievement tests (both verbal and non-verbal) must be utilized, with special emphasis on tests which are appropriate for the student's background.

2) Examiners who are familiar with the background of the student and of his culture and language must be a part of the staff.

3) Information must be obtained about the student's family background and emotional status, as well as observations relating to the student's behavior.

Again postulated upon the testimony of expert witnesses, it is the conclusion of this court that, as to special education teachers, a juvenile's right to treatment requires the maintenance of the following minimal professional standards:

1) Special education teachers, certified by the state as qualified to teach either emotionally disturbed, mentally retarded, or minimally brain damaged children, must be utilized to treat children in these categories.

2) In-service training by an outside consultant must . . . provided for special education teachers at least once a week. (Such consultants are available from the Texas Education Agency.)

3) A minimal teacher-student ratio for TYC students in the categories above specified is one special education teacher for each eight of such students, plus supporting personnel (such as education diagnosticians and the like).

As to the supporting personnel, this court adopts the opinion of expert witnesses that a juvenile's right to treatment requires the maintenance of the following minimal professional standards:

1) One educational diagnostician is essential for each 150-200 TYC students.

2) Assessment by language pathologists, sometimes referred to as speech therapists, is an essential complement to any other professional assessments, and such an assessment is necessary to diagnose the underlying learning difficulty that may be initially identified by a psychologist or teacher.

On the basis of evidence of expert witnesses, this court concludes that, since the state removes Mexican American children from their family, friends, ethnic background and culture, transporting them in most cases hundreds of miles to a predominantly Anglo rural setting, these juveniles' rights to treatment requires that the state establish a program for bilingual education. The parties are directed to propose such a program in accordance with the provisions set out in *United States v. Texas*, 342 F.Supp. 24 (E.D. Tex. 1971), aff'd 466 F.2d 518 (5th Cir. 1972), discussed in Project Report: DeJure Segregation of Chicanos in Texas Schools, 7 Harv. Civ. Rights – Civ. Lib. L. Rev. 507, 576-91 (1972).

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Findings

A vocational program is available to certain TYC inmates, although the process of selecting those eligible for the program is not clear. . . .there are no vocational counselors available at Gatesville and no established testing procedures to determine which boys should be enrolled. The vocational program consists of educational courses and so-called "work experience." Boys are assigned to the educational courses on a space-available basis, with the overflow reporting for "work experience."

Work experience programs at Gatesville consist of such essentially institution-maintaining endeavors as work in the laundry, maintenance division, warehouse, food service division, dormitory clothing room, and other area. . . .Gatesville vocational students do not get paid for such work. . . .Work experience supervisors at Gatesville are not accredited teachers, and the students receive no school credit for their work in the work experience programs.

Some attempt is made to coordinate the vocational education and the academic education courses at Gatesville; but the work experience program is not coordinated with academic education.

The work experience program altogether fails to provide any meaningful or realistic vocational training. The vocational education courses, although potentially useful, are not coordinated with a practical and realistic attempt at job placement outside the Gatesville institution. . . .It is clear that there has been no employer or union input in fashioning the vocational education programs, for they have not been geared to meet actual employer needs or union requirements.

Conclusions

Giving weight to the evidence supplied by expert witnesses with respect to vocational education, it is concluded that a juvenile's right to treatment requires the maintenance of the following minimal professional standards:

1. Each student should be provided with an employability plan, based on extensive counseling regarding career options.

2. Adequate procedures to assure placement with prospective employers should be maintained by the TYC.

3. Adequate on-the-job training, obtained through work release programs, should be provided.

4. Adequate support services, such as remedial reading and mathematics, should be provided.

5. Appropriate limitations must be placed on the so-called "work experience" consisting of essentially institution-maintaining work, so as to prevent such work from dominating the daily activities of students.[30]

Discrimination

In addition to the previously cited instances of discrimination in testing, education, and treatment, in *Morales* the court found:

> No active effort is made to recruit Black or Mexican Americans. Because of the geographic location of its institutions, TYC would encounter difficulty recruiting Black and Mexican American employees in any event. There are ten Mexican American houseparents in Brownwood, but none at Gainesville or Crockett. The racial imbalance on the staff is particularly apparent when consideration is given to the fact that thirty-four and one-tenth per cent of TYC students are Black; forty-one and nine-tenths per cent are Mexican American. An analysis of the total TYC staff shows that thirteen and seven-tenths per cent are Black, eighty-three and five-tenths per cent are Anglo, and two and five-tenths per cent are Mexican American. Of the boys at Mountain View, sixty-eight and seven-tenths per cent are Black or Mexican American, and eleven and four-tenths per cent of the staff are non-Anglo. At Gatesville, sixty one per cent of the boys and fourteen and three-tenths per cent of the staff are Black or Mexican American.
>
> Among the subschools at Gatesville, the proportions of the ethnic mix vary widely. At Valley School forty-three per cent of the boys are Black and thirty-nine per cent Mexican American, with a staff which is eighty-one per cent Anglo. At Sycamore (the elite school with an overcultured high school) seventy-nine per cent of the students and eighty-six per cent of the staff are Anglo. At each of the girls' schools, the proportion of non-Anglo girls is roughly the same: about thirty-five to forty-five per cent. The staff at Crockett (which was once a segregated school for Black girls) is fifty-five and two-tenths per cent Black and Mexican American. At Brownwood, the staff is twelve and six-tenths per cent non-Anglo, and at Gainesville, it is only six and nine-tenths per cent minority. At Mountain View there are ninety-two Anglo custodial staff, eleven Blacks, and three Mexican Americans. At Gatesville there are 212 Anglo, forty-eight Black, and six Mexican American on the custodia staff. At Brownwood, there are eighty Anglo, twelve Black, and five Mexican American houseparents.[31]

Discrimination In Other Areas

Evidence of discrimination has been revealed in studies of institutions in other areas of the country. Blacks, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans and girls are victims of discriminatory treatment in the juvenile justice system.

In New York the treatment of juveniles by the family court system was reported in 1972.[32] The survey committee found that voluntary agencies tend to discriminate

against black and Puerto Rican children, thus forcing the court to place 76 percent of the Black and 66 percent of the Puerto Rican children in public shelters. In sharp contrast, 78 percent of the white children are provided care by private, publicly funded agencies. In a survey of male persons in need of supervision (status offenders), 40 percent of the Black, 54 percent of the Puerto Rican, and 82 percent of the white children were placed by the same agencies. Of female persons in need of supervision, 56 percent of the Black, 83 percent of the Puerto Rican, and 87 percent of the white children were placed. Although more female persons in need of supervision (67%) were placed than male persons in need of supervision (55%), of the children judged delinquent, 21 percent of the male children were placed and none of the female children. In addition, the report states that they found discrimination by voluntary agencies against children who lacked cooperative families, who had serious emotional problems, who had low IQ levels, who had low reading levels, who had been seriously involved with drugs or who were adolescents.[33] Those who were not placed by social agencies were placed in the New York State Training Schools.

Meda Chesney-Lind notes that in 1965 more than half of the girls referred to the juvenile courts were referred for conduct which would not be criminal if committed by adults, while only one fifth of the boys were referred for these actions.[34] In her study in Honolulu she found that 34 percent of the girls and 22 percent of the boys had been arrested for juvenile offenses, as opposed to adult offenses, for the first time were referred to the courts. She also stated that police were more likely to refer girls to the court at the time of the first offense than boys. In addition, in 1972, almost 70 percent of all girls and only 31 percent of all boys referred to the courts were charged with juvenile rather than adult offenses. In the detention facilities, 43 percent of the residents were girls, while only 30 percent of the juveniles arrested were girls. Forty-six percent of the detained juveniles were those arrested for either running away or being incorrigible, and most of these were girls. Many girls are referred to the juvenile authorities for sexual behavior and refusal to abide by family imposed rules of behavior, which are tolerated without such referral in the case of boys. In addition, girls are more likely to be detained prior to trial and, after trial, receive longer sentences.[35]

SUMMARY

Research indicates that incarceration of juveniles has little positive effect.[36] Many believe incarceration in juvenile facilities is much more likely to be harmful than helpful. One expert has stated that only about 10% of the children detained in secure facilities should be detained because of any potential violent behavior.

Many if not most of the children who are incarcerated in detention facilities have been identified as "children with problems" by the schools prior to any involvement in the court system. In fact, the school system often has a part, as do parents, in referring children to the courts. The incapacity of schools to deal with the problems of children at an early stage inevitably contributes to the development of those problems to the level which requires the involvement of the courts. The labeling of children as "problem children" or "disruptive children" and placement of the children in special schools or special classes isolated from other students initiates the process of convincing children that they are unworthy human beings. Incarceration in juvenile facilities increases the development of a self image of unworthiness and incapability. The fact that a child is likely to become so disruptive or truant or so incapable of effectively participating in a regular classroom that his or her behavior will cause removal of the child from the classroom at some future time is probably a matter that can be reasonably predictable before the child's problems become extreme. If so, some helpful alternative school programs, coupled with the availability of psychiatric and

social services for the child and his or her family, would help to prevent the child from becoming tomorrow's delinquent. This costs money, but the expenditure of $5,000 on a child at this point may save $17,000 annually at some later date.

The development of community-based housing and care for those children who are already in the court system will permit children to deal with their problems in a realistic social environment.

But do not underestimate community resistance to the housing of children who have been found "delinquent" or "in need of supervision" in that community. The isolation of juvenile facilities, physically away from view and social contact, is not an accident. Out of sight, out of mind is the preferred status for neglected children in our society.

It is clear that the current system does not work. It remains to be seen whether reallocation of funds and personnel will occur to develop a process of coming to terms with the neglect of children where it begins instead of where it ends, and whether or not current facilities will become humane in their treatment of children.

FOOTNOTES

[1]U.S. 93rd Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, *Juvenile Delinquency*, Report No. 93 - 180, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, p. 2.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Vachon, B. "Hey Man, What Did You Learn in Reform School?" *Saturday Review of Education*, October, 1972, p. 71.

[5]U.S. 93rd Congress, op. cit.

[6]Ibid, p. 3.

[7]Ibid.

[8]Vachon, B. op. Cit., p. 72.

[9]Committee on Mental Health Services Inside and Outside the Family Court of New York, *Juvenile Justice Confounded*, Paramus, N.J.: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 124 pp., 1972, p. 37.

[10]Cole, Larry, *Our Children's Keepers*, New York, N.Y.: Grossman Publishers, 1972, p. xvi.

[11]Ibid, pp. xvii-xviii.

[12]Campbell, Bruce, J. *Escape from Alcatraz*, New York, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963, pp. 43-44.

[13]Cole, Larry, op. cit., p. 68.

[14]Ibid. p. 35.

[15]*Morales* v. *Turman*, U.S.D.C. Eastern Dist. Texas, Civil Action No. 1948, Decided September 3, 1974.

[16]Ibid, p. 4.

[17]Ibid, pp. 97-102.

[18]Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency, The Presidents Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967. 427 pp.

[19]Ibid, p. 8, from McCormick, *The Essentials of a Training School Program, Matching Scientific Advance with Human Progress*, (NCJC] Conference, May 1950), quoted in Gleuck, *Some "Unfinished Business" in the Management of Juvenile Delinquency*, 15 Syracuse L. Rev. 628, 630 (1964).

[20]*Morales*, pp. 35-47, 51-64.

[21]Cole, Larry, op. Cit. p. 53.

[22]Ibid, pp. 1-29.

[23]Ibid, pp. 63-99.

[24]Ibid, pp. 100-116.

[25]Mangel, Charles, "How To Make A Criminal Out of a Child," *Look*, June 29, 1971.

[26]See generally, *Morales;* Cole, Larry, op. cit.; and Committee on Mental Health Services, op. cit.

[27]Ibid.

[28]See generally, *Morales;* Cole, Larry, op. cit.

[29]Ibid.

[30]Ibid, pp. 79-88.

[31]Ibid, pp. 135-136.

[32]Committee on Mental Health Services, op. cit.

[33]Ibid, pp. 21-28.

[34]Chesney-Lind, Meda, "The Sexualization of Female Crime," *Psychology Today*, July, 1974, p. 43.

[35]Ibid, pp. 43-46.

[36]See generally, Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency, op. cit.

[37]Mangel, Charles, op. cit., quoting Milton Rector of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

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NEGLECT IN THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN ON MILITARY BASES

There are three principal school systems serving American dependents overseas:

1. The Overseas Dependents School System, which is operated by the Department of Defense

2. The American Sponsored Overseas Schools, which are sponsored and partially funded by the Department of State

3. The Panama Canal Zone Schools, which are operated by the Canal Zone Government.

The Overseas Dependents' School System: History and Goals

Since over 85 percent of overseas dependents are served by the Department of Defense, this paper will focus on the Overseas Dependents' School System (ODSS).

The ODSS began in October 1946 in Germany when 38 elementary and five high schools were opened to 2,000 American children and 120 teachers. "From this humble beginning, the system expanded at a tremendous rate of growth during the next few years as schools operated by the Army, Navy, and Air Force were opened in various countries and island groups all over the world."[1] Currently the ODSS enrollment is estimated at 155,000 students, in 294 schools, in 27 countries and island groups.[2]

The avowed goal of the Department of Defense is to provide high-quality elementary and secondary education for children of military and civilian personnel of the Department of Defense residing overseas. A recurring general provision in the Department of Defense Appropriations Act establishes a dollar limitation on the amount of funding for the ODSS, which for 1973 was $174,763,000.

Problems of Priority and Inequity

The construction and leasing of school facilities receives low priority in the ODSS. Only 55 percent of ODSS classrooms in Europe are considered adequate.[3] A significant problem in obtaining improved school facilities is that the "host" military service must fund the construction of the school building. Proposals for school construction must compete for priority with proposals for the construction of barracks, warehouses, maintenance shops, and other facilities directly relating to the military commanders can act only in an advisory capacity and have no role in assigning priority to construction of schools. There are disparities between the levels of adequacy of school facilities on Army, Navy, and Air Force installations. In the European area, schools on Army bases have the highest percentage of adequate classrooms, while in the Pacific area, Army schools have some of the poorest facilities. Because the manner in which school construction is planned and funded, more recognition is given to service priorities than to the world-wide requirements for ODSS facilities.[4]

Teachers and Students: Problems of Transience, Language, Rights

The caliber of teachers in the ODSS is relatively high. Generally, teachers have had several years of teaching experience in the United States before going overseas. However, one problem area concerns local teachers who are married to military personnel. Many of the teachers do not meet the prescribed experience requirements.

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but of greater importance is the fact that frequently their spouses are transferred during the school year. The departure of the teacher causes disruption, loss of continuity, and administrative problems in attempting to quickly replace the teacher. Thus, local hiring adds unnecessarily to the turbulence caused by teacher turnover during the school year.[5]

Children of military personnel have difficult adjustments to make. If a father is transferred, he must often move immediately and it is several months before his family is able to join him. Consequently, the children are seperated from their father for an extended period of time and this creates serious problems, not only for the child but also for the wife. (This is reflected in the exceptionally high divorce rate among military personnel.)

Apart from the adverse effect on the family situation, these constant moves have a negative impact on the educational development of the children. It is difficult for the children to adjust to a new environment and establish a relationship with teachers and other children when frequent relocations are inevitable.

An unusual problem found in the overseas schools is when English is a child's second language. By way of illustration: If an American man is stationed in Italy and marries an Italian woman, their child might learn Italian and pick up only a few words of English. Before he enters kindergarten his father is transferred to Germany, and the child enters school unable to function in German or in English. Although this is not a frequent occurrence, it is an existing problem and is difficult to resolve.

More frequent—and perhaps equally difficult for many students—is the denial of student rights in the overseas schools. The authoritarian nature of the military establishment and the high priority it places on the enforcement of strict discipline are carried over into many of these schools with the result that students are subjected to unduly rigid requirements of behavior, dress, hair length, and similar areas of legitimate student concern.

The Need for Vocational Education

Vocational education programs are inadequate in the ODSS. While the United States has seen an increasing emphasis on vocational education in secondary schools, the ODSS curriculum traditionally has been oriented toward preparing its graduates for college. Increased costs and the lack of necessary facilities and equipment have prevented the implementation of vocational education programs in overseas schools. Because almost half of the ODSS students do not plan to attend college, and owing to limited job opportunities available to them, strong vocational work/study programs are desperately needed.[6] Recently the ODSS has begun to initiate vocational courses, yet they have not kept pace with the re-evaluation and restructuring of the curriculum to equip overseas students with the requisite training and skills to meet occupational requirements.

Delays in Receiving Educational Materials and Equipment

Overseas schools often experience lengthy delays in receiving textbooks, educational materials, and equipment. Although the supplies are ordered a year in advance, the requests for materials must be routed through the Defense General Supply Center and the General Services Administration, where deficiencies in packing, marking, and transporting supplies and equipment prevail. Thus, some schools may obtain excessive quantities of expensive audio-visual equipment and textbooks, while other schools have

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inadequate supplies. Moreover, procedures for identifying and redistributing excess textbooks are poorly implemented.

Funding Limitations

The Congressional limitation on expenditures is too restrictive for overseas schools. ODSS does not receive supplemental funds, such as those appropriated under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The Department of Defense Appropriations Act provides for a maximum dollar limitation for use on a dependent's education. This budget is computed almost a year and a half in advance of the beginning of the school year. When the budget is being prepared it is difficult to estimate future needs and enrollments. The frequent revaluation of currency, and the continued problem of wage-price increases, make it difficult to plan accurately this far in advance. Because imposed limitations cannot be exceeded, programs are frequently eliminated or changed, and these restrictions impair the education of overseas dependent children.

Many problems of the ODSS are inherent in an educational system tied to the military establishment. However, this institutional framework does not preclude the possibility of resolving such problem areas as the absence of quality standards, the dollar limitation under the Department of Defense Appropriations Act, and the low priority given to improving school facilities.

FOOTNOTES

[1] *Education of Dependents Overseas,* a report by the Investigating Committee of the General Subcommittee on Labor, October 1973 p. 7.

[2] *Problems in Providing Education to Overseas Dependents of United States Personnel,* Comptroller General of U.S., 1974, p. 3.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 54.

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NEGLECT IN THE EDUCATION OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Extent and Diversity of Need

There are currently seven million handicapped children in the United States; one million are childrenof preschool age. Although handicapped children represent 10 percent of all school-age children, current information shows that less than 40 percent are receiving an adequate education.

The handicapped are not a homogeneous group. There are different classifications of handicapped children which include visually disabled, hearing impaired, physically handicapped, mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed and/or socially maladjusted, learning disabled, and speech handicapped. Many of the children have multiple handicaps.

Federal Role in Education of the Handicapped

The federal government initially provided support for the education of the handicapped one hundred years ago when it allocated funds to establish Gallaudet College (liberal arts college for the deaf) and the American Printing House for the blind. Most early programs were developed in private schools because handicapped children were regarded as not being subject to the application of the concept of equal educational opportunity. It was the family's responsibility to provide an education for their handicapped child, since the children were discouraged or excluded from attending public school. "As the concept of equality of educational opportunity increasingly came to be viewed as requiring that every child should be educated to the limit of his ability, there developed apace a recognition that the public school system should accept responsibility for providing educational programs for exceptional children."[1]

Until 1966, when the National Advisory Committee on Handicapped Children was established, federal programs were minimal, noncoordinated and given low priority. In 1967, the Congress established the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (within the U.S. Office of Education) to direct a program of nonmatching formula grants to states. The Education of the Handicapped Act was passed in 1970, its purpose being to codify all major legislation for the handicapped.

The federal government is trying to improve the education of the handicapped by providing substantial amounts of money to the states for initiating, expanding, and improving education programs for all handicapped children. The money is used for research, teacher training, instructional materials, and other services. About $300 million was spent last year (as compared with $52 million in 1967) to improve educational opportunities for the handicapped.

The Handicap of Exclusion from Educational Opportunity

Unfortunately, the programs reach only a minimal number of handicapped children. Only 40 percent (about 2½ million) are currently receiving an education to help them reach their maximum capacity.[2] Approximately one million handicapped children are totally denied a public-school education, in most cases because their handicaps are too serious for the school system to deal with. An estimated 125,000 handicapped children live in state institutions where educational programs are poor or nonexistent.

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A handicapped child born in one state may be four times as likely to get special education services as one in an adjacent state.[3] Families of handicapped children often move to communities where there are adequate educational facilities for the children. This places an undue burden upon certain communities, penalizing them for providing education for the handicapped, while rewarding other communities which are unwilling to institute these programs. The migration of families to gain special educational opportunities for their handicapped children has become an accepted practice.

Because of the tremendous shortage of programs, handicapped children requiring special education are put on long waiting lists. Sometimes handicapped children who need comprehensive education are given "home instruction," *i.e.*, a visiting home instructor comes for three hours a week. It is not unusual for school districts to refer parents of handicapped children to a variety of agencies which are unable to meet the child's needs. Bureaucratic problems are constantly encountered by parents of handicapped children primarily because education, medical, social, rehabilitation, and welfare agencies function as separate and sometimes disparate organizations.

Court Decisions: Legal Rights of Handicapped Children

In 1971, there were two landmark U.S. District Court decisions relating to the education of the handicapped. The first, in Pennsylvania, held that all mentally retarded children in the state must be provided with an education at the expense of the public. The District of Columbia was responsible for the second decision which extended that to cover all handicapped children.[4]

Despite these important decisions, legal rights of handicapped children often continue to be ignored. After frustration with the lack of educational programs for handicapped children, parents and other advocates for these children have sought redress in the courts.[5] Currently there are 36 lawsuits in 25 states which are trying to eliminate policies which deprive handicapped children of their right to an equal education.

Identification and Diagnosis of Need

The failure to identify handicapped children is a serious problem. Research has shown that handicapped children can make significant progress if their handicaps are identified and diagnosed as early as possible, and if they immediately begin to receive special educational services. Handicapped children are less likely to develop secondary emotional problems if they participate in early childhood education programs. Ideally this gives the children a head start by enabling them to enter regular classrooms and ultimately attain self-sufficiency.[6] The Handicapped Children's Early Education Assistance Act was enacted in 1968 to help improve identification, diagnosis, and educational services for handicapped children. Unfortunately, only 175,000 out of one million handicapped children participated in early childhood education in 1973.

Teacher Undersupply: Retraining Needs

Unlike general education, education of the handicapped has an unmet personnel need. A recent study indicated a shortage of 250,000 special education teachers at the elementary-secondary level, and 60,000 at the preschool level. The Education of the Handicapped Act has provided funds to retrain surplus teachers, and train teachers, teacher educators, researchers, and specialists. An important and separate aspect of the program specifically deals with training physical education and recreation teachers for handicapped children. Approximately 400 colleges and universities offer training in special education.

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Vocational Education: An Imperative for Education of the Handicapped

Vocational education for handicapped children is an important priority. In these times of increasing unemployment, it is difficult to find work without appropriate training. Vocational opportunities for handicapped children are limited. The Vocational Education Act sets aside 10 percent of total funds specifically to provide special vocational education services for handicapped students. The most recent available figures show that at least 220,000 handicapped persons received services under this program.[7] Dr. Edwin Martin, Jr., head of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, says that "experience tells us that 40 percent will be severely underemployed and subsist at the poverty level, 10 percent will be partially dependent, and 30 percent totally dependent upon society for their existence, sometimes requiring institutional care."[8]

The Ultimate Goal

The ultimate goal of education for handicapped children is to provide them with the opportunity to become as independent as possible, thereby promoting their development and reducing the likelihood of institutional care. To reach this goal, it is necessary not only to make early assessments of the handicapped child, but also to continue to teach and train the handicapped child throughout his or her development, including career training programs. Only when this goal is reached can it be said that handicapped children are receiving an equal educational opportunity.

TABLE 1.–PREVALENCE OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Handicap	Percent of total population	Number of children*
1	2	3
Visually disabled (includes blind)	0.1	55,000
Deaf	0.1	55,000
Hard of hearing	0.5	275,000
Speech handicapped	3.5	1,925,000
Crippled and other health impaired	0.5	275,000
Emotionally disturbed	2.0	1,100,000
Mentally retarded	2.5	1,375,000
Learning disabilities	2.0	1,100,000
	11.2	6,160,000

SOURCE: Gearheart, B. R. *Organization and Administration of Educational Programs for Exceptional Children.* Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1974. p. 25.

*Based on 1975 population estimates for ages 5-18.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Rossbiller, Richard A.; Hale, James A.; and Frohreich, Lloyd E. *Educational Programs for Exceptional Children: Resource Configurations and Costs.* National Education Finance Project, Special Study No. 2. Madison: University of Wisconsin, August 1970. p. 21.

[2] Simches, Raphael. "Economic Inflation: Hazard for the Handicapped." *Exceptional Children* 41:230; January 1975.

[3] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. "Aid for Education of the Handicapped." *American Education* 10:30; July 1974.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 32.

[5] Simches, *op. cit.*, p. 230.

[6] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 32.

[8] Martin, E.W., Jr. "Foreward." *Career Education: Exemplary Programs for the Handicapped.* Reston, Va.: Council for Exceptional Children, 1974.

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EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

The Critical Years for Intellectual Growth

Early Childhood Education includes a wide range of activities that focus on the care and development of young children. These activities include nursery school, Head Start, day care, and kindergarten. This paper will concentrate on the magnitude of neglect and unmet needs in existing programs.

The beginning years of life are critical for a child's intellectual growth, and social, emotional, and physical development. These years are the formative years when the permanent foundations are laid for a child's feelings of self-worth, sense of self-respect, motivation, and initiative. Educators and psychologists have found that a child's development during these early years significantly affects his ability to learn and grow.

Magnitude of Educational Need

U.S. Bureau of the Census data give some indication of the extent of the need for early childhood education programs. More than 6 million children under the age of six have mothers who work full time. There are places in licensed child care facilities for only seven hundred thousand of these children. In 1973, 3.5 million children under six years of age lived in families with incomes falling under the poverty line of $3,885 for a family of four (U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity), and in addition, 2.2 million children under the age of six lived in families with incomes under $6,960. Two and a half million children in this age group live in families headed by a female.[1] The U.S. Department of Labor has shown that most mothers work because of financial reasons, and many have no choice but to leave their children in undesirable situations since adequate care is unavailable.

Primary Components of Early Childhood Education

Child Care usually falls into two general categories: (a) Comprehensive child development programs, which embrace all the needs of a young child and his family. These include educational, nutritional, and health care programs as well as parental involvement through instruction in the fundamentals of child development. (b) Custodial child care programs, which ensure the supervision and physical safety of children while their mothers are at work. Supervisors have little or no training in early childhood education.

Deficiencies in Custodial Care

Most children receiving custodial care are looked after in family day care homes (1-5 children) as opposed to group care (12 or more children of various ages, although usually not for infants). In 1974 there were approximately seven hundred thousand children in licensed day care. Since most day care homes are not licensed, the estimated number of children in unlicensed homes is approximately 2 million.[2] The uneven enforcement of state licensing laws and the casual arrangements typical of family care account for the uncertainty of the number of children involved. While some family day care homes provide excellent supervised care, many have been found to be overcrowded unhealthy homes that do not provide even custodial care. A significant number of women provide family day care as a last resort for earning money, and they lack training, resources, facilities, and energy for coping with young children.

Some working women must make haphazard arrangements for the care of their children. Often a mother will work during the day, and the father will work at night and sleep during the day. The children are left virtually alone all day and are instructed to wake their father if they need him. It is not unusual to find older children home from school taking care of younger brothers and sisters. Three-quarters of a million children are cared for by siblings under 16 years of age.[3] An alternative is for the child to accompany the mother to her place of employment. Unfortunately a child playing on the floor in a back room of a dry cleaning establishment has little opportunity to grow and develop. Almost twenty-thousand young children are totally unsupervised and locked inside their homes while their mothers are working.[4] It has been well documented that a child's experience in the early years has profound and irreversible effects.

For many years nursery school and kindergarten were the only organized programs to meet the need for educating young children. Yet nursery schools, being private, are available only to meet the developing needs of children coming from relatively affluent families. Some states have offered kindergarten for many years, while others are just initiating programs. Some state or locally supported kindergartens are in every state, yet some have only very limited programs.

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Educational Programs: Duplications, Inequities, and Waste

The first major venture of the federal government into preschool education was in 1965, when Head Start was introduced. This federally funded program was initiated because educators were convinced that on the first day of kindergarten or first grade, children from poor families were already far behind other children. This was said to result from limited learning opportunities at home and limited experiences of the children. There have been extensive arguments regarding the advantages and disadvantages of Head Start, especially the long-term benefits to children who have participated in Head Start activities. However, Head Start has rekindled government interest in financing preschool education and it views child care in terms of educational as opposed to custodial activities.[5] Educational leaders are now enlarging their concern to incorporate children from every socioeconomic level throughout the United States.

The federal government has over 60 different funding programs for child care and child development. Each program has different goals, and information is rarely exchanged among programs. Different categories of people are eligible for the various programs, separate agencies, different procedures and guidelines, and different geographic boundaries defining local communities for planning and secure delivery.[6] This poor coordination has resulted in duplication, overlapping, and waste. Consequently, fewer services are reaching the children and families for whom they were designed.

In 1971, the Congress passed the Child Development Act, a comprehensive program for child care services. This bill would have been a first step in dealing with the massive problem of child neglect. However, President Nixon vetoed the legislation on the grounds that it would lead "to the sovietization of our children."[7] Numerous other bills have been introduced in an attempt to provide an acceptable child care program, but these efforts have not yet resulted in any new legislation. Currently pending is the child and family services bill, proposed by Senator Walter Mondale (D-Minnesota) and Representative John Brademas (D-Indiana). This bill would initially provide $650 million to expand developmental child care programs, and would reach $2 billion in approximately one year. This money would be distributed to state and local governments which would have the authority to allocate the funds among public and private organizations, including schools, with the requirement that priority be given to disadvantaged children.[8] Many advocates of child care legislation recommend that the

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public schools be the prime sponsors of early childhood programs. Given the existing facilities and organizational ability of public school systems, this proposal has great merit.

These efforts have not yet resulted in any new legislation, yet in light of the Administration's recently enunciated policy regarding increased federal expenditures it is questionable whether any new child care law will be forthcoming this year.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Roby, Pamela. "Child Care–What and Why?" *Child Care–Who Cares?* (Edited by Pamela Roby.) New York: Basic Books, 1973. p. 3.

[2]*Ibid.*, p. 4.

[3]National School Public Relations Association. *Early Childhood Education: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs.* Arlington, Va.: the Association, 1973. p. 11.

[4]Guggenheimer, Elinor. "The Battle For Day CAre." *Nation* 216:596; May 7, 1973.

[5]Steinfels, Margaret O'Brien. *Who's Minding the Children?* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1973. p. 85.

[6]Roby, Pamela. "Young Children: Priorities or Problems? Issues and Goals for the Next Decade." *Child Care–Who Cares?* (Edited by Pamela Roby.) New York: Basic Books, 1973. p. 134.

[7]Michalak, Joseph. "Tug of War: Who'll Get Preschool Children?" *New York Times*, January 15, 1975. p. 73.

[8]*Ibid.*

p. 114 Work.

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SUBURBAN EDUCATION

While some suburban schools suffer from the absence of vocational programs, preschool facilities, and programs for the handicapped, most suburban schools are troubled by the problem of underachievement, runaways, drug abuse, and student rights. For this reason, this background paper will focus on these last four areas.

Underachievement

An underachiever is a student who demonstrates well above average intellectual or academic ability on intelligence and apitude tests, but is not fully using his intellectual potential in meeting the academic demands of the school. He "not only fails to reach the academic excellence which his ability suggests he is able to attain, but also is often found lagging behind the achievement level of students of average ability."[1]

There is a direct relationship between parental dominance at home and a child's achievement at school. Undue pressure and demands to achieve have been shown to affect the child adversely, contributing to rebellion, repressed hostility, and a low achievement drive.[2] The overinvolved parent who pressures the child damages his child's self-concept. Approval and support are often lacking. When a child earns a high mark, the parents tend to focus on the possibility of his doing better. "The overinvolved parent sees his own image at stake in his child's academic and social accomplishments. He wears his child's successes on his sleeve and overpersonalizes his child's defeats."[3] The apathetic parent has an equally damaging effect on a child's achievement in school.

Another explanation for underachievement is that the adolescent is bored with the traditional curriculum and finds it irrelevant to his future. Thus, he rebels by not doing required work and missing classes. Some schools have attempted to remedy this problem with innovative curriculum offerings: psychology, sociology and anthropology courses, a choice of history and English courses, independent study, work/study, and the option of taking courses for credit at nearby colleges. By affording the student a broader curriculum from which to choose, and concurrently lessening the formal requirements for graduation, suburban schools hope to make the courses more meaningful for the student and to stimulate his efforts.

Runaways

There is no doubt that the problem of runaways is extremely serious, and that it is increasing. While in 1955 there were approximately 200,000 runaways, by 1972 the number had grown to an estimated one million. As the numbers have increased, the average age of runaways has decreased from 17 to 15. Furthermore, there has been a significant increase in the number of very young runaways (11-14 years of age) and an increase in the number of female runaways, who now constitute the majority of all young people who run away from home.

For those who run away there may be serious legal consequences since running away is a juvenile status offense. Thus, a runaway who is younger than 18 (this age may vary among states) is subject to arrest, detention in jail, and possible incarceration in a juvenile institution.

More serious than the legal consequences are the dangers faced by young runaways on the street. Many runaways flee from their suburban family life and go to the

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city, where they are easy prey for the hustler and drug pusher. Since they are often without money and too young to find employment, many runaways have to sell drugs or steal or engage in prostitution to support themselves (or to support their acquired drug habit).

Recently, the Congress passed the Runaway Youth Act. This Act authorized $10 million (for 1973) to develop local facilities to deal with the immediate needs of runaway youth in a manner outside the law enforcement structure and juvenile justice system. The money is also allocated for temporary shelter/care facilities, counseling services (for youths and parents), and research on the adolescents who run away.

Drug Abuse

Of the 18 million students in the nation's public schools, an estimated 30 percent, or 5.5 million are using illegal drugs. While most drug use in schools is limited to marijuana, the number of young people taking amphetamines, barbiturates, cocaine, and heroin has increased dramatically over the past six years.

Before 1968, the drug problem was viewed as a problem of the urban ghetto and was tied to racial, socioeconomic, and class structures. Since that date, however, it has become apparent that the drug culture is not limited to any one location or to any particular class of people. Suburban schools are now faced with a problem that parents and educators believed "could not happen here." Compounding the problem is the fact that drug use has not been limited to high-school students, but has become a problem in the junior high schools and even the elementary schools.

There is no simple answer to the question of why drug use has become so prevalent today. Some commentators place the blame on television advertisers who spend millions annually to sell easy drug cures for almost every malady imaginable. Others contend that the parents are responsible, arguing that the socially acceptable cocktail party is no different than a "pot" party. Another factor is the ease with which suburban youth may acquire drugs. Some argue that drug use is caused by a hostility to authority and definance of rules, or boredom, while still others point to the fact that the transition from childhood to adulthood with the concurrent loosening of family ties and increased responsibilities is the root of the problem. Yet whatever the cause, there is no doubt that the drug problem exists, and the attention of educators and parents has turned to the resolution of this problem.

One of the greatest difficulties faced by educators is the use of instructional materials to inform students of the hazards of drug abuse. While these materials are prepared with good intentions, they often employ sensationalism or scare techniques, and reflect the biases of the adult population. Many of these "overkill" programs simply do not correspond to the actual experiences that students have when using drugs.

In formulating an effective drug abuse education program for the schools, the initial task is to educate the educators. When the students recognize that they are better informed than their teachers, they tend to "tune out" any discussion of drugs. It is important to provide students with accurate, unexaggerated facts about drugs. Distorted facts usually cause students to lose respect for the teacher, and create an atmosphere of suspicion and hypocrisy. The program should emphasize why people take drugs, rather than moralizing about the terrible repercussions from drug use. At the outset, then, it is necessary to train teachers in drug abuse education by inservice training sessions and course offerings in teacher training institutions. Even when the

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teachers are adequately trained it is necessary for the school system to formulate a relevant program that can be administered effectively.

No one suggests that the schools have the sole responsibility for alleviating drug abuse. Parents play a part as well, and it is necessary to coordinate the activities of all participants to resolve the problem effectively. Yet educators do have a unique opportunity to take a central role, and relevant educational programs may go far toward lessening and possibly eliminating the use of illegal drugs by today's suburban youth.

Student Rights

It is uniformly recognized that the process of maturation is a gradual one requiring the acquisition of experience, judgment, and confidence to make proper decisions. It is equally obvious that small children need to be protected and to have many basic decisions made for them by responsible adults. To structure the school environment and to protect the students, most schools have enacted sets of standards which define the relationships among students and between students and their teachers. Recently, these standards have been attacked as overly restrictive of personal freedoms and individual predilections.

In the past, student behavior codes were phrased in terms that reflected their restrictive and negative nature, e.g., "Students may not leave the school grounds at lunchtime without a pass." However, the emphasis has shifted from strict structural guidelines toward today's concept of "student rights." These changes resulted not only from a societal shift of emphasis, but also from court decisions that held that ". . . neither the Fourteenth Amendment nor the Bill of Rights is for adults alone."[4]

For conceptual as well as practical reasons, "student rights" may be classified into two categories: the right to fair treatment and the right to have a voice in school programs and policies. The boundaries of the right to fair treatment have been established mainly by the courts, which have interpreted the constitutional guarantee of "due process" and of "equal protection" so as to grant the right to be treated equally without regard to race, age, national orgin, socioeconomic background, etc. Moreover, the concept of due process has been held applicable to disciplinary procedures, requiring a fair hearing on the merits plus other procedural safeguards before a student may be suspended or expelled. And the students' rights to the freedoms of speech, assembly, and the press have been found to apply to the school setting.

Aside from the right to fair treatment, the concept of student rights also includes the right to participate to a degree in school planning and school policies. Students now are active in decisions involving curriculum offerings and, in some schools, teacher evaluation. The right to confidentiality of student records was clearly established in the recent Family Rights and Privacy Act (P.L. 93-380). The intent of the Act is to prevent loose dissemination of information relating to students and their records. Now student records are confidential and privacy rights are protected by law.

Recently, many states and local schools have amended their existing student codes to reflect their concern for student rights. Some have even gone farther and completely rewritten their codes so as to incorporate not only rules of conduct but also guarantees of the confidentiality of student records, prohibitions of searches of students and their lockers without probable cause and/or a search warrant, and affirmative promises of freedom of speech, religion, and assembly, and the right to possess and distribute literature. These codes also contain a statement of the students' right to an equal education, and set forth the grounds for suspension and expulsion along with

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procedural guarantees prior to such action. Finally, most of the new codes adopt a nonrestrictive approach to school attire, allowing an individual to wear any clothing that does not intefere with the educational process. Thus, with a lead from the courts and pressure from the students, many schools have adopted new or amended school codes to reflect the changing times.

FOOTNOTES-SUBURBAN

[1] Raph, Jane B.; Goldberg, Miriam L.; and Passow, A. Harry. *Bright Underachievers.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1966. p. 1.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 57.

[3] Fine, Benjamin. *Underachievers: How They Can Be Helped.* New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1967. p. 71-72.

[4] *Tinker* v. *Des Moines Independent School District* 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

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EDUCATION IN GEOGRAPHICALLY ISOLATED AREAS
(Rural Education)

Educational deficiencies in rural areas are of national importance, not only because they handicap a significant number of American citizens, but also because of their indirect impact on the nation's urban regions. Greater job opportunities in the nation's cities lure many rural citizens to the mecca of the urban environment, where their rural education proves inadequate. The resulting dependence upon already drained urban financial sources is immense. To remedy the situation, it is first necessary to investigate what the rural citizen is running from.

Poverty and Educational Neglect: Historic Facts of Rural Life

In the past, rural adults and youth have frequently been short-changed by the educational system. The extent to which rural people have been denied a quality education is evident from the products of the educational system and the resources that go into the system.

Of the nation's 35 million poor, over 40 percent live in rural areas. While rural poverty is most prevalent in the South, it also exists throughout the nation. Rural poverty is especially acute among the predominantly white population living in the Ozarks and Appalachian areas, the Mexican-Americans and Indians living in the Southwest, and the blacks living in certain parts of the South. Agricultural migrants, sharecroppers, farm workers, and rural industrial workers are also affected.

Available statistics indicate that children from rural areas are the most poorly educated members of society. Few rural poor adults have attained the general rural average of 8.8 years of education, and the parents' low educational levels are reflected in their children's performance.[1] Since many students believe that education is irrelevant to their future, there is little motivation to complete high school.

Teachers in rural areas are not afforded the opportunity to be exposed to educational innovations because of their geographical isolation. The lack of competitive pay scales, adequate facilities, and teaching materials makes it difficult to attract and retain good teachers. While there are dedicated and talented teachers in rural schools, they, like their students, are handicapped by the inadequacy of instructional resources.

The Problems and Advantages of Small Schools

Small enrollments are an intrinsic feature of schools in geographically isolated areas. Owing to their limited tax base and deficient financial resources—and to the fact of small enrollments, requiring higher per pupil expenditures than are required in larger schools for even a minimal education—these rural schools are severely deficient in *basic* operational funds. As compared to suburban and even urban school districts, rural educational facilities, instructional materials, and curriculum offerings are grossly inadequate.

There are, however, advantages as well as disadvantages to small school size: The small class size and small town nature of rural education should facilitate the development of close relationships among teachers, parents, and children. Small schools also have the advantage of making desired changes relatively easily, due to the inherent flexibility of the administrative structure. Unfortunately, rural schools have tended to emulate urban schools; and as a result, they have often failed to capitalize on their own

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strengths. Frequently, the *system* governs; the curriculum remains static, however outmoded or unresponsive to the needs of the students.

Moreover, the very fact of geographic distance between the schools and the parents diminishes the possibility of any effective relationship between school staff and community. For the most part, rural parents and community groups participate very little in the planning and implementation of their children's education. Many innovative programs need community approval—or sometimes, those innovative programs will not be instituted in the absence of community demand. There is also the problem of parental apathy—and perhaps teacher apathy, as well—which is communicated to the children, with consequent damage to their own motivation to learn. (It must be noted that this problem is not unique to rural education; it is a problem that exists in urban and suburban areas also.)

The Need for Curricular Alternatives

Some rural schools emphasize college preparatory courses even though relatively few students plan to attend college. The learning environment is inflexible, and there is a need to increase the number of special programs and curriculum alternatives to provide the students with the opportunity to pursue relevant goals. Athletic and extracurricular programs are very limited and this adds to the rigidity of the student's education.

If vocational education programs are offered, they are usually oriented toward home economics and agriculture. Since society is less oriented toward agricultural services, rural studetns have found their vocational background to be totally insufficient when looking for employment. When they move to the cities in search of employment, they are unprepared to compete for jobs in the urban areas because of their inadequate education.

Consolidations and Innovations

Of significant importance to rural education has been the reorganization and consolidation of school districts, which has made it possible for many students to attend high school. Regional schools operate more economically, and are able to offer a more diversified curriculum and to purchase current instructional materials, library resources and scientific equipment. The combined teaching staffs from several schools can share ideas and develop more innovative programs which will be relevant to their students' needs.

There are diversified, innovative programs which are currently operating on an experimental basis in some rural schools. The following examples, described in the publication, *Rural Education in the United States,* by Lewis Tamblyn shows the range of these programs:

1. Although many school systems consider the busing of students a time-consuming task, the Gunnison Watershed School District (Colorado) has demonstrated that the time spent by students on buses can be educationally profitable. This school district covers approximately 3,200 square miles and enrolls some 1,500 students, some of whom spend 40 hours or more per month traveling to and from schools. One of the school buses has been equipped with electronic equipment, including a seven channel audiotape deck and headsets. Each student has his own volume and selector control. Three of the seven channels are reserved for differing student age levels. Another channel is restricted to AM radio programs. The remaining chan-

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nels are reserved for special independent study tapes requested by individual students. Weekly, the students receive a listening guide on the programs available and select the channel that most closely meets their needs.

In addition to tapes used for supplementary and enrichment work, tapes of appropriate special events at the school and community are broadcast. In this manner the students have an opportunity to become involved in some of the activities that they would otherwise miss.

2. The Appalachia Educational Laboratory has developed and field tested a home-oriented design for preschool education of three, four and five year olds. The program is built around a daily television lesson which is broadcast on a commercial station and viewed by the child and his mother at home. On a weekly basis, a para-professional visits the child's home to counsel with the parents and to deliver materials for further lessons. Once each week, group instruction is provided in a mobile classroom located near the pupil's home. The cost of this program is only one-half that of the conventional kindergartens.

3. Project Mid-Tennessee provides students with a children's museum by using a large tractor-trailor labeled as a "yellow submarine." Children in mid-Tennessee are being exposed to various educational exhibits in science. Additionally, these students have been enriched through visits by the Nashville Symphony Orchestra. Prior to the visitation, pre-concert materials were provided to the classroom teachers; after the concert, informal conferences between musicians and students in the school were held. Provisions were made to provide music clinics as a follow-up activity. These clinics, designed to generate local interest in continuing musical programs, are conducted by orchestra members for interested musicians in rural areas.

4. In many school situations, the availability and use of resource people has not been feasible due to their inaccessibility; however, the use of the amplified telephone has neutralized this obstacle. By attaching a rather inexpensive device, called an amplifier, on a telephone, groups of students are able to listen to, and interact with, a person located great distances away.

   One program in Colorado linked several Colorado schools ranging as far apart as 265 miles, using the amplified telephone technique to transmit instruction in American history. The instructor was located in his office at Gunnison, while the students remained in the individual small schools. Lecture topics ranged from the "Roaring Twenties" through the "Coldwar." Among the advantages were, instantaneous two-way communication, lack of extensive travel, and the use of specialized discussion personnel on a short time basis.

   One of the more unique uses of this innovation was an art class which originated in Mesquite, Nevada. Instructors of "Art by Telephone" prepared and sent overlays and other projective materials to the participating schools in advance of the bi-weekly scheduled class time. This was followed by lecture and discussions with the students over the amplified telephone system. In most cases this was their initial exposure to art; without this approach they would not have had any formal art training within the school system.

FOOTNOTE

[1]Tamblyn, Lewis R. *Rural Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: Rural Education Association, a Department of the National Education Association, 1971. p. 7.

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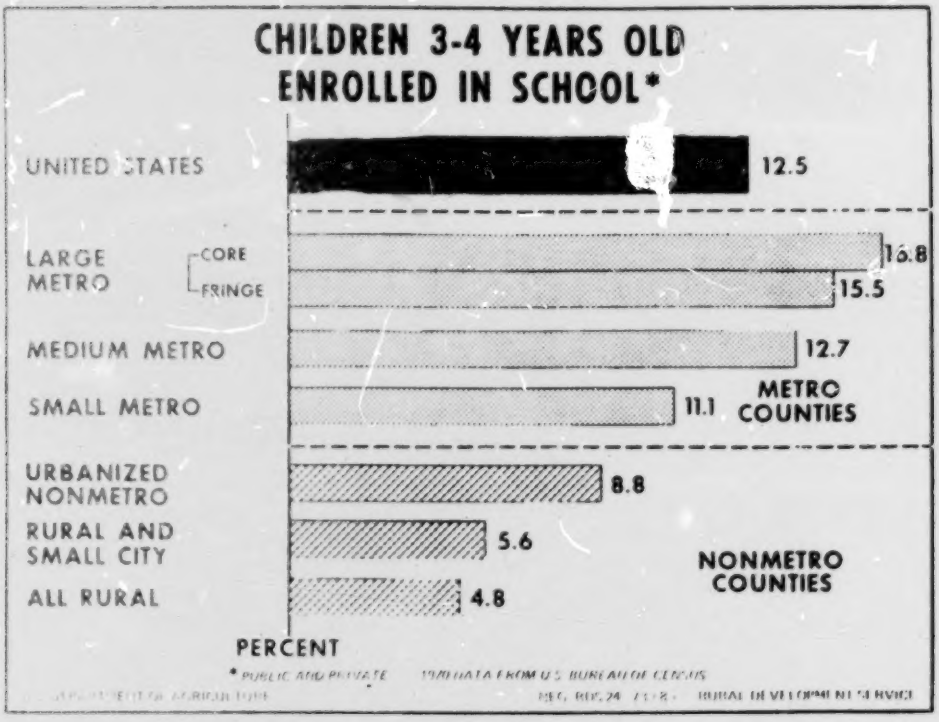

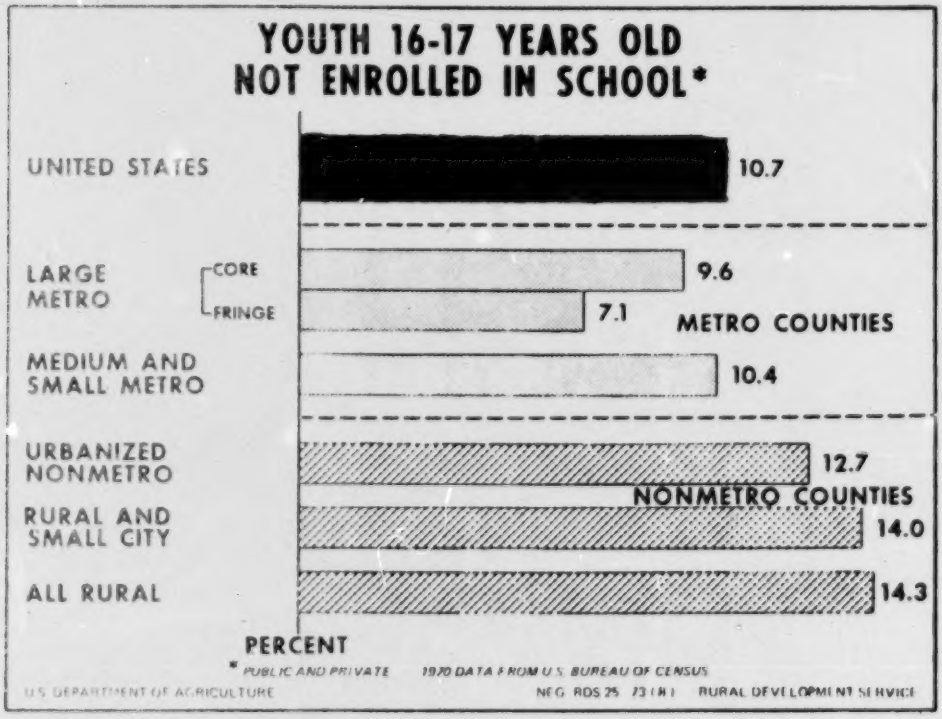

From: *Rural Schools as a Mechanism for Development* by Edward O. Moe and Lewis R. Tamblyn. National Educational Laboratory Publishers, Austin, Texas. 1974.

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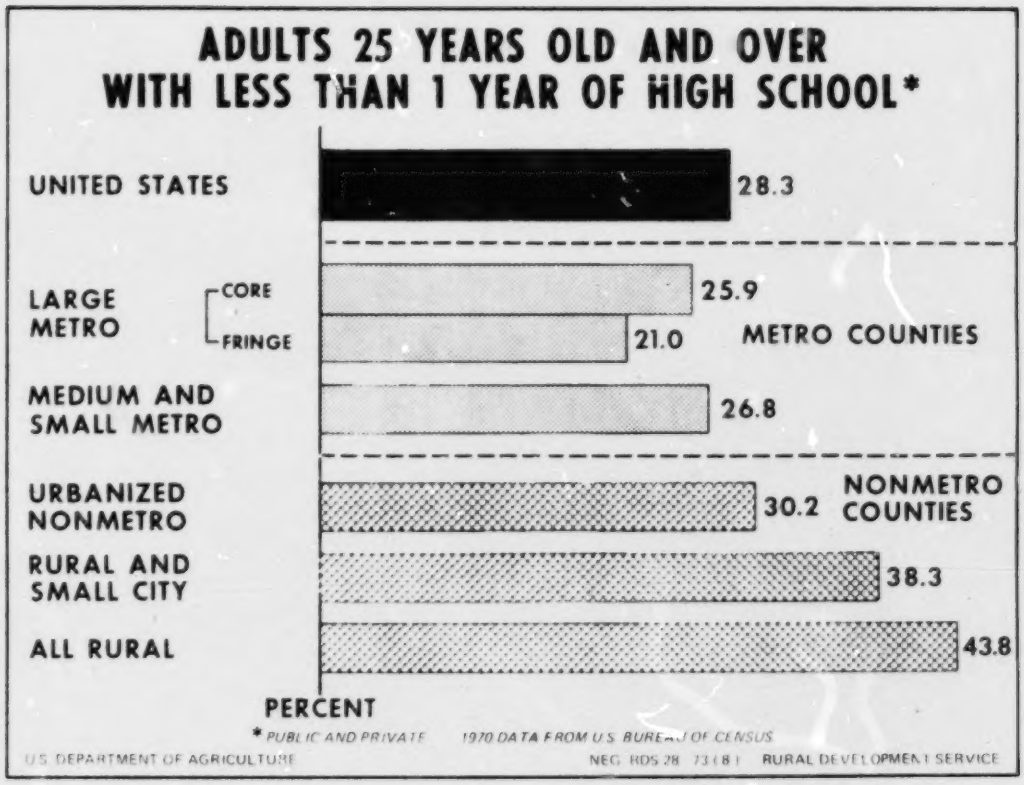

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ADULT BASIC EDUCATION*

The Statistics of Educational Neglect

More than 51 million adults in the United States have not been graduated from high school. The Office of Economic Opportunity estimates that 24 million adults are "educationally disadvantaged," i.e., have less than eight years of schooling. These undereducated people find themselves relegated to second-class citizenship by their inability to function within the changing economic and social framework of today's society. Their lack of education is a major cause of their unemployment and underemployment.

Census Bureau statistics reveal that unemployment and illiteracy are highly interrelated. Without basic skills the adult is severely limited in obtaining gainful employment. A high-school education has become a minimum requirement in most occupations, and the increased demand for higher skill levels has accelerated the need for adult education. To supply this need, adult basic education courses provide an opportunity for adults to return to school and pick up where they left off in their educational training.

The Federal Government Role in Adult Education

Adult education became a direct concern of the federal government early in the 1960's. The Adult Basic Education Program was established by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and funded in 1965 to combat poverty. The Adult Education Act of 1966 and subsequent amendments (including the Education Amendment of 1974) have broadened and strengthened the Adult Education Program. The avowed purpose of the program is to "enable all adults to continue their education to at least the level of completion of high school and make available the means to secure training that will allow them to become more employable, productive and responsible citizens."[1]

On the federal level the program is administered by the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education through the Division of Adult Education. Upon approval by the U.S. Commissioner of Education, the states receive funds to establish adult education programs. Each state receives a basic grant plus an allotment based upon the number of adults 16 years old and older who have not completed high school, and who are not currently enrolled in school. The matching requirement is 15 percent state and/or local funds.[2]

Status of the Adult Student: Problems and Advantages

Adults who enroll in the basic education program are both advantaged and hindered by their adult status. They often come back to school with negative attitudes caused by their past failures. They have anxieties and feelings of inferiority about their academic capabilities and their ability to succeed. This is especially true for those adults who dropped out or were expelled from school. Many adults find it very difficult to adjust to the school environment after being away from the classroom for so long a time. If a person who is enrolled in a basic adult education program has an outside job, he/she is often tired, and after having worked all day, finds it extremely difficult to concentrate.

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*Another kind of adult education program is offered by many municipalities and school systems, most frequently at the expense of the adult student. Courses offered include skills, arts, and knowledge generally unrelated to the individual's vocation.

Adult students are also helped by their adult status. Their presence indicates a desire to learn and to gain new information and skills. They are motivated to learn not merely by the desire to get good grades, to get into college, or to please parents, but to get a job or to improve their job status. Teachers of adult students have fewer disciplinary problems because of their students' voluntary participation in the program. Thus teachers often are able to establish an informal relationship with their adult students.

Evaluation is one of the neglected areas of adult education. Most programs are carefully planned and executed, yet the planners often fail to adequately review them.

The goal of adult education is to create a well-balanced and diversified program which is responsive to adults' needs and geared to their abilities. Some programs have not been successful because the adults did not have sufficient skills to benefit from the instruction. In this situation, the development of long-range programs to improve basic skills is vital for the success of the Adult Basic Education Program. Moreover, there are many communities that do not have such programs. Greater efforts are needed to fulfill the avowed goals of the adult basic education program.

FOOTNOTES

[1] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. *Adventure in Human Development*, Fact Sheet, 1974. p. 1.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

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National Education Association of the United States
1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036
RESEARCH DIVISION

September 1972

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS OFFERED BY PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1971

THE DATA in the table below are from a questionnaire sent by the NEA Research Division in May 1971 to a sample of public school systems enrolling 300 or more pupils. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information about selected programs and practices of public schools—are they available to all pupils or only to some.

Highlights

- Each of the adult education programs listed below is offered by fewer than 3 systems in 10.
- Fewer systems provide an opportunity for adults to earn their high-school diploma than provide any of the other programs.
- A greater percentage of the large- than medium-size and of the medium- than small-size systems offer each of the programs.
- Adult education programs are more likely to be offered on Saturdays and weekday evenings except in the large size systems where day courses are also likely to be offered.

	Estimated total, percent of systems enrolling 300 or more	Percent of school systems by enrollment group		
		Large (25,000 or more)	Medium (3,000-24,999)	Small (300-2,999)
ADULT BASIC EDUCATION				
Not offered	72.3	16.8	47.2	82.3
Day courses only	0.7	3.6	2.6	...
Saturday and evenings only	23.5	28.7	40.9	17.3
Both	3.5	50.9	9.3	0.4
HIGH-SCHOOL EQUIVALENCY				
Not offered	76.7	31.7	57.6	84.4
Day courses only	1.0	3.0	2.6	0.4
Saturday and evenings only	19.6	25.1	33.1	14.8
Both	2.7	40.1	6.7	0.4
HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMA				
Not offered	87.4	26.9	69.5	95.1
Day courses only	1.0	0.6	2.6	0.4
Saturday and evenings only	9.6	40.7	21.9	4.5
Both	2.0	31.7	5.9	...

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	Estimated total, percent of systems enrolling 300 or more	Percent of school systems by enrollment group		
		Large (25,000 or more)	Medium (3,000-24,999)	Small (300-2,999)
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (e.g., BUSINESS, INDUSTRY				
Not offered	70.2	22.8	56.1	76.1
Day courses only	1.7	9.0	2.6	1.2
Saturday and evenings only	24.6	24.6	32.7	21.8
Both	3.5	43.7	8.6	0.8
LEISURE TIME, PARENT EDUCATION, AND PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT				
Not offered	71.8	31.1	51.3	79.8
Day courses only	0.5	2.4	0.7	0.4
Saturday and evenings only	25.3	38.9	42.8	18.7
Both	2.4	27.5	5.2	0.4
Number of systems reporting	11,718	167	269	243

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NEGLECT IN THE EDUCATION OF URBAN CHILDREN

The educational system is generally failing to provide the urban student with an educational experience which will afford him an equal opportunity to enter the occupational and cultural mainstream.

Billions of dollars have been spent on compensatory education, thousands of projects have been initiated, hundreds of studies have been completed, judicial decisions and rulings have been entered, riots and disorders have occurred and generated new agencies and educational institutions, and yet the nation's urban schools continue to operate in a vortex of segregation, alienation, and declining achievement.

Deficiencies in Educational Resource

In comparison with other schools, urban schools generally have a greater number of pupils per teacher, a smaller amount of money to spend per pupil, fewer textbooks and other instructional materials per pupil, a greater proportion of teachers with fewer years of experience, teachers who are not fully certified and older school buildings. These schools have more dropouts and more students who read below grade level; graduates, as well as dropouts, from urban schools are swelling the unemployment roles of the nation. The problems of urban education are intensified by the upsurge of drug use, student unrest, school violence, and the use of weapons.

The facilities of many urban schools are deficient. The school buildings are old and sometimes physically hazardous. In 16 of our nation's largest cities, approximately 1,300 elementary schools, and more than 210 secondary schools built before 1920 are still in operation today. The schools are overcrowded, poorly heated and ventilated, the classrooms are dark and have a gloomy atmosphere. These outmoded and dilapidated schools operate in a state of continuing deterioration. Many schools lack such basic items as adequate classrooms, textbooks, supplies, desks, chairs, and blackboards. Unrepaired broken windows and inadequate toilet facilities also exist. Hallways are adapted for classroom instruction when there are not enough classrooms available. Modern auxiliary facilities, such as libraries, gymnasiums, and cafeterias, are also lacking.

The existing failure to teach effectively is due not only to poor instructional materials or an irrelevant curriculum, but also to some teachers' low expectations for the student's ability to learn and achieve. Teachers in urban schools have poor working conditions, and one outcome is a high attrition rate. Teacher experience is lowest and teacher turnover is highest in urban schools where some teachers seem to use the urban schools as training grounds for positions in suburban schools.

Schools cannot succeed in their efforts without the support of the parents. The student's home and family environment play a very important role in his education. But in urban schools particularly, meetings between teacher and parent are most frequently of a negative nature; they are usually prompted by the misbehavior or failure of a student. Such meetings rarely occur to collaborate in assessing the student's progress.

The Costs of Student Failure

A large percentage of students are not attaining sufficient mastery of even the most minimal and basic educational skills. A vast majority of students are failing to learn to read adequately, and this widespread failure applies to writing and mathematics as well. They often fall progressively behind in basic skills the longer they stay in school.

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Failure to learn basic skills has disastrous consequences, not only for the individuals who fail, but also for the whole society. Students who have not mastered basic skills are often denied jobs, or if hired, they are forced to remain permanently in low paying jobs. National studies indicate that people who do not have a mastery of basic skills will be increasingly doomed to functional unemployability. A disproportionately large number of children who have not learned basic skills drop out of school at great economic, psychological, and social cost to society.

Urban children are less likely to receive adequate medical and dental care. As a result, they are more prone to suffer from undetected, undiagnosed, and untreated health problems. Levin, a noted economist, advocates that the schools provide more educational assistance, diagnostic, health, and food services to the urban child to help him achieve his learning potential.

A Shrinking Tax Base; Soaring Costs

The financial crisis faced by urban schools is due in part to population migration. Middle-class families have moved to the suburbs to obtain higher quality education for their children at lower tax rates. Businesses have moved to reduce their taxes. Thus, there are high concentrations of disadvantaged students left behind in city schools because their parents are unable to escape to the suburbs.

Cities also face higher costs in purchasing educational resources. Salaries for teachers are higher in the cities, as are land construction, and insurance costs. The high rate of crime and vandalism in urban schools necessitates additional security measures, such as guards and alarm systems, which contribute to the rapidly rising cost of urban education.

School boards and teacher organizations have stated that additional finances are the most important ingredient for improving urban schools. However, the evidence suggests that there is no simple relationship between expenditures and school effectiveness. When additional money finally filters down to the urban schools, it is often wasted on traditional approaches that have consistently failed the urban child. "The record on spending on compensatory education is an outstanding testimony to the futility of doing more of the same things that have not worked in the past."

Obtaining more money for the urban schools will not guarantee that the inequities of urban education will be corrected, since the impact of the urban environment on the student is a crucial matter. Factors such as overcrowded housing, low income, and inadequate food and medical care cannot be ignored in searching for a solution to the urban educational problems. These factors combined with the deficiencies of the urban educational system, have produced a complex problem for which there is no easy solution.

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[1]Fantini, Mario D. *The Reform of Urban Schools.* Schools for the 70's. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Center for the Study of Instruction, 1970. 100 p.

[2]Levin, Henry M. "Financing Education for the Urban Disadvantaged." *Resources for Urban Schools: Better Use and Balance.* (Edited by Sterling M. McMurrin.) New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1971. 146 p.

[3]National Education Association, Task Force on Urban Education Report. *Schools of the Urban Crisis.* Washington D.C.: the Association, 1969. 58 p.

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[4]Passow A. Harry. "Urban Education in the 1970's." *Urban Education in the 1970's.* (Edited by A. Harry Passow.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1971. p. 1-45.